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ABSTRACT

The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies recommended federal funding to turn 20 existing regional high schools into Language and International Studies High Schools. A seminar on the implementation of that recommendation addressed issues of school organization, student recruitment and selection (including the thorny issue of making the schools available to students of many backgrounds and different levels of ability), technology, teacher training, and corporate and public support. The question of planning curriculum was broken down into different curriculum areas for discussion: humanities (including languages), mathematics and sciences, social sciences, and physical, vocational, and home economics education. The overall goal of the establishment of the schools would be the fostering of international and intercultural understanding. The promotion of such understanding would involve a highly multidimensional and multifaceted approach with strong emphasis on second language preparation. Background papers by prominent individuals are appended; these cover such topics as implementation of international schools at the state level and international education in the rural United States. (JB)

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National Seminar On The Implementation Of International Schools

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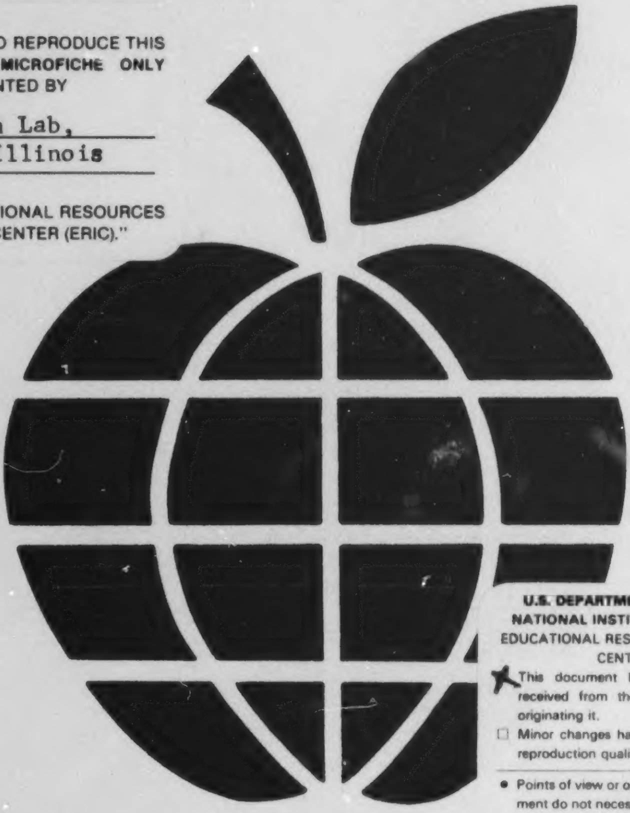

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November 30-December 2, 1980

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

Edited by Alan C. Purves

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

The following volume is indeed a cooperative effort, and it is with extreme diffidence that I even identify myself as editor. I do, however, want to acknowledge the hard work of all connected with the seminar, from each participant to those who provided the coffee. To list them all here would consume many pages, but I do want to single out Fred Starr and Paul Simon for encouraging me to proceed and Robert Payton of the Exxon Foundation and George Brinegar of the Office of International Programs, University of Illinois for their generous financial support. Carol Holden and Mae Maxwell of the University Office of Conferences and Institutes handled all of the arrangements magnificently. Patricia Bandy and Carolyn McKinney typed and retyped the final manuscript and Margie S. Berns did the last editorial check. All the errors are my own.

Alan C. Purves
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University of Illinois

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FOREWORD

> In no small measure, friendly and peaceful relations among nations depend on improved communications between their individual citizens, and fluency in another language is one way of achieving improved communication.

With those words, former President Carter proposed the establishment of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies in June of 1977. The work of that Commission serves as the foundation upon which we must build if we are to end our frightful shortcomings in foreign languages.

The seminar described in these pages offers such a beginning, a concrete step toward a national initiative to serve our high school students. For many of them will soon be in the working world, facing the challenges of a planet that has grown small but that, nevertheless, lacks understanding. This seminar, to plan for specialized schools, can help plant the seeds of understanding.

If, prior to the tragedy of Vietnam, we had a few hundred more Americans who spoke Vietnamese and were in contact with the people there, it's possible we could have avoided the devastation of that war.

Why do our friends from Germany, Japan and Sweden sometimes sell more products in other nations than we do? The answer is fairly simple: they speak the language of the buying country and we do not.

We are living in a world that grows smaller and smaller. We in this country are closer today to any point on the globe than our northern colonies were to our southern colonies when our nation was founded.

If we are to build a world of peace and stability, people will have to talk to one another.

This seminar makes the goal closer to becoming a reality.

Paul Simon
U.S. Congressman
24th District, Illinois

BACKGROUND AND GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

In 1979, the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies presented a series of recommendations in its report. One of those recommendations was as follows:

> The Commission recommends federal funding to develop 20 Language and International Studies High Schools, using already existing regional high schools, to serve as models nationally and to offer intensive foreign language and cultural studies to students in the country's more populated regions and also in less urban areas. The establishment of up to 60 high schools (one per metropolitan district) should be a long-term goal.
>
> In addition to all regularly required courses, the Language and International Studies High Schools should offer intensive language teaching in the less commonly as well as commonly taught languages. All students enrolled in these schools should be required to achieve advanced competence in at least one foreign language and basic competence in at least one additional language. The schools should integrate language and cultural teaching.
>
> Language and cultural programs could also reflect, wherever feasible, the interests of local ethnic communities. Special encouragement should be given to Black and other minority student participation in the schools through pre-high school counseling and student recruitment.
>
> The principal costs of Language and International Studies High Schools would be for additional foreign language teachers and new curricular materials, mainly during the transition period from ordinary high school programs. Taking into account support through the incentive funding plan proposed above, the additional cost per school for up to five years would be $162,000 a year, or a total of $3.2 million annually

for the 20 proposed schools. Grants for the schools would be administered by the Department of Education.

STRENGTH THROUGH WISDOM
A Critique of U.S. Capability

A REPORT TO THE PRESIDENT FROM THE
PRESIDENTS COMMISSION ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE
AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
November 1979

Among the many groups and individuals responding to this recommendation were members of the staffs of The University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, The Illinois State Board of Education, and CEMREL, Inc. of St. Louis, a regional educational laboratory. During 1979 and 1980, they met and devised a series of guidelines for secondary schools that would emphasize languages and international studies. The guidelines were published in the *Annals of the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages*.

As a result of that publication, the Exxon Education Foundation graciously offered to support a seminar that would bring together representatives of major organizations concerned with secondary schools, of state and local school systems, and of industry and other organizations concerned with youth, languages, and international studies.

The seminar met from November 30 to December 3, 1980 in Urbana, Illinois and was divided into a number of working groups, whose reports form the substance of this document. In addition, the participants joined in plenary sessions to consider certain general questions which are outlined in the supplementary papers in this volume. The mood of the seminar was one of cautious optimism and eagerness to advance the general recommendations of the President's Commission. As shall be seen, however, some different courses were advanced than that proposed in the initial report.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SEMINAR

Need and Target Populations

It is self-evident that, as the United States moves into the twenty-first century with an altered if not a diminished role among nations, increasingly large segments of our youth will find themselves living and working with other nationals who speak other languages. Not simply those who will fill executive positions in multi-national corporations, in the military, or governmental agencies will be placed in other lands or among speakers of other languages, but those who will be employed in the whole variety of industrial, service, or agricultural occupations. To learn another language and to learn about other cultures and global issues will become necessary for virtually all our youth. To build toward a secondary school curriculum that will meet this challenge, the programs outlined in this volume are proposed.

These programs are intended for all of the nation's youth who desire to take advantage of them, whether the youth be in urban, suburban, or rural school districts. As will be pointed out later, some of the programs will have to be competitive, at least for the immediate future, and some students may not succeed in completing them. The programs are located in secondary schools, for a variety of reasons, the chief of which is that the secondary school provides the best source of teachers willing and capable of providing instruction in languages and international studies. Further, a change in secondary school curriculum provides the greatest opportunity to affect the curriculum in both elementary schools and in colleges and universities.

Recommendations

1. A Language and International Studies High School (or program) should be available as an alternative to a regular high school program to *all students* in the district or feeder area who have an interest in an intensive program of language and international studies. It is vital that students having a wide range of abilities and talents, from all kinds of backgrounds and all types of environments, have the option of participating in a language and international studies program.

2. In keeping with the *democratic* nature of the Language and International Studies High School concept, entrance to such a school should be on the basis of self-nomination. In keeping with the necessity for the program of such a school to be *specialized* in nature, a detailed individual assessment of each

student's aptitude and suitability to remain in the program should be made after his or her first year in the program.

3. The study of a modern language other than the student's first or native language should be *mandatory* for every student in a Language and International Studies High School or program, with *mastery* of that language being the goal.

4. Every student should have the option of studying another modern foreign language, with working knowledge of that language being the goal.

5. A Language and International Studies High School should offer instruction in one or more of the less commonly taught modern foreign languages, such as Arabic, Japanese, Russian, or one or more dialects of Chinese, as well as in the commonly taught foreign languages, such as French, German, and Spanish.

6. At least one of the foreign languages taught in a Language and International Studies High School should be used as the medium of instruction in a variety of other disciplines, such as social studies, geography, literature, but not mathematics or the sciences. The possibility that instruction in a language other than the students' native language could *replace* the fourth (or third and fourth) year of foreign language instruction should be investigated by the administration of each school or program.

7. International studies are equally significant with languages in the curriculum of a Language and International Studies High School. These studies comprise topics such as cross-cultural differences and similarities, ecological and technological interdependence, current and potential issues of worldwide scope and importance, global systems (political, economic, social, environmental, and so forth), and a wide variety of other topics and disciplines. A graduate of a Language and International Studies High School or program should possess a broad knowledge and appreciation of a variety of cultures, and should have the cross-cultural awareness and skills necessary to function effectively with people from a variety of other cultures. However, the graduate also should possess *a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of the culture(s) associated with the language(s) that he or she has studied.*

8. The educational experience of every student in a Language and International Studies High School or program should include at least one planned exchange experience within a culture or subculture different from that of his own. This experience may be domestic or foreign, may take place during the school year or the summer, and may be engaged in as an individual or member of a group; in any case, the experience *must directly and intimately integrate the student into a substantially different society and culture*. Whenever possible, the exchange experience should oblige the student to employ one of the languages he or she is learning in daily conversation with native speakers of that language. Subject to financial and practical considerations, each such experience should have a duration of at least *several weeks*. Administrators, faculty members, and parents associated with the school or program should investigate ways of raising funds in order to insure that *every* student has an opportunity to participate in an exchange experience.

9. To the extent possible, secondary-level exchange students from a wide variety of foreign nations should be included in the student body of every Language and International Studies High School or program.

General Objectives of Language and International Studies Secondary Schools

The broad objectives of Language and International Studies Secondary Schools would include the following:

1. To prepare students to live in an international multilingual community and to communicate across cultural and linguistic boundaries.
2. To prepare students to be aware of the interdependence of countries and cultures in a world society.
3. To prepare students to be aware of the cultural differences and similarities in the world and within their own country.
4. To prepare students to accept differing individual and cultural perspectives and to appreciate the individual as a participant in the world.
5. To prepare students to understand the nature of ecological and technological interdependence.

As these objectives become translated into more specific expectations for students, the following set emerges:

1. Students will be prepared to have a speaking and reading knowledge of at least one language in addition to their native language.
2. Students will be made aware of the culture and values of the people who speak the language(s) that they learn as well as of other peoples.
3. Students will learn to relate their own geographical and historical position to that of peoples in other cultures.
4. Students will learn about the economic systems of the world and about economic interdependence.
5. Students will learn about the ecological systems of the world and about ecological interdependence.
6. Students will learn about technology and its impact on various societies.
7. Students will learn to locate and use data about the world and its people.
8. Students will have the experience of living in another culture.

The Role of the Federal Government

Although the report of the President's Commission called for federal funding of pilot Language and International Studies Secondary Schools, the members of the National Seminar believed that such an action might be less productive than a series of state and local initiatives (see the remarks of Roy Forbes, Gail Parks, and others, *infra*). Such decentralized initiatives would appear to have a better chance of long-term success, since each community would have an investment in the continuance of such a school. The members of the Seminar also concurred that many of the centralized curriculum development projects were less than successful, and although certain general guidelines as to the curriculum in languages and international studies have been set forth, each locale should work out its own specifics for the curriculum. To say the above is not to preclude federal support for certain model projects, such as those outlines by Francis Roberts of the National Endowment for the Humanities (*infra*). Such projects, however, would serve as models or pilots for other local initiatives.

What appears to be needed, however, is some mechanism for the exchange of information about faculty, curricula, exchange programs, out-of-school projects, and potential challenge grants from industry. The most likely mechanism would be a clearinghouse operated through federal or private funding (probably through a combination of the two), to which communities that have established or are planning to establish Language and International Studies Schools can resort for information and through which they can disseminate the particulars of their programs. At first, such a clearinghouse could operate with a relatively small staff and budget: probably three full-time staff with access to a computer.

In addition to exchanging information, a clearinghouse can also relay certain information to federal officials, particularly accurate information about the location and staff of programs offering the less commonly taught languages to secondary school students. At present, such information is woefully lacking. With such information, federal officials might be able to "seed" instruction in some of these languages in various parts of the country. Such "seeding" would probably offer sufficient incentive to certain communities, and would, with the support of the clearinghouse, form the major monetary contribution of the federal government. Such contributions would probably have greater long-term effect than would what was originally proposed by the Commission.

Recommendations

10. That the federal government assist in the establishment of a clearing house to provide information to existing and emergent Language and International Studies Schools.
11. That the federal government monitor the teaching of the less commonly taught languages and provide a means of encouraging their teaching in various locations throughout the country at the secondary school level.

ISSUES
IN
SCHOOL
ORGANIZATION

Leader: Gordon Hoke

Reporters: Neil Grove
Jonathan Swift

Panelists: Carol Bond
Edwin Cudecki
Ruth Hervatin
Don Holste
Effie H. Jones
John Lett
David Liberatore
Carola Minar McMullen
Michelle Shores[illegible]n
Edward Sullivan

MODELS OF ORGANIZATION OF LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Language and international studies programs may be designed and implemented on the basis of any one of a number of organizational models. The seminar believes that the first model outlined below holds the greatest promise of successfully implementing all nine of the recommendations listed in Section I and II. However, similar results may be achieved by using one of the other models, which in many cases are likely to be better suited to local conditions and practical realities. Furthermore, *the six models outlined below are by no means mutually exclusive; neither is it necessary that they be adopted without adaptation to local needs and values.*

The Magnet School

This, the preferred model, involves one building in a single school district. The magnet school draws students, teachers, and resources from the *entire* district, and it is devoted exclusively to the language and international studies program.[1]

---

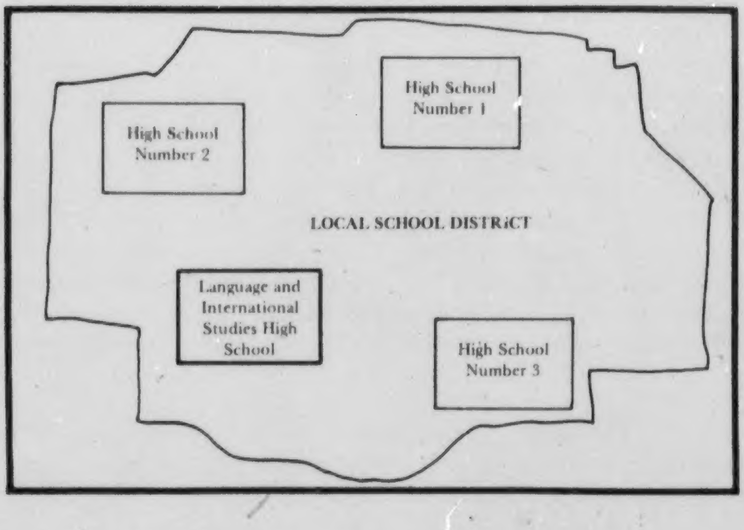
[1] The magnet school concept also could be implemented at the *state* level, in which case it probably would be a boarding school financed and administered by the State Education Agency.

The School-Within-a-School

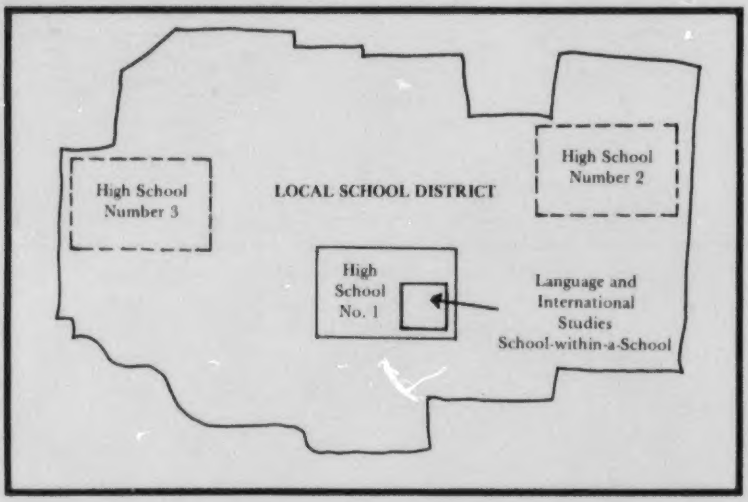
This model may be implemented in one of two ways. In the first, the school-within-a-school is actually a magnet school drawing students from the entire district. In the second, the school-within-a-school draws students only from the feeder area of the high school in which it is located (which, in districts with one high school, may be the entire district).

The Consortium School

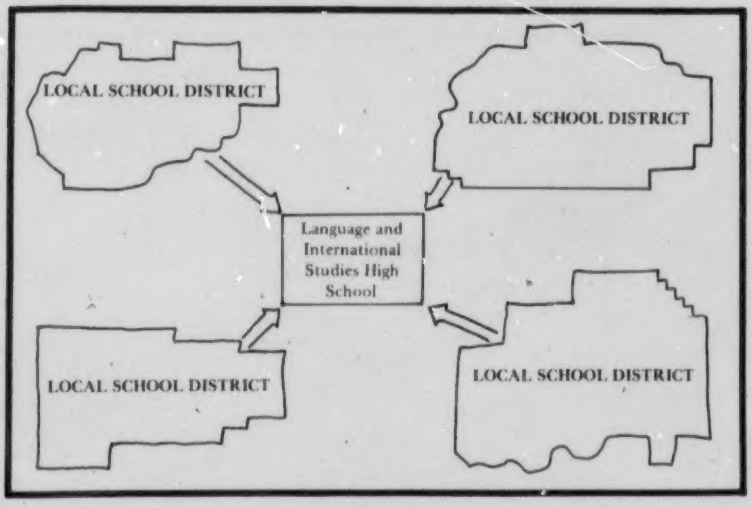
The essential feature of this model is that the Language and International Studies High School or program is jointly supported and administered by two or more geographically proximate public or parochial school districts, or other similar education-delivery units. It makes little difference whether a consortium school is a building devoted exclusively to the language and international studies program, a school-within-a-school, or some other arrangement along the lines suggested below; local needs and conditions would dictate these choices.



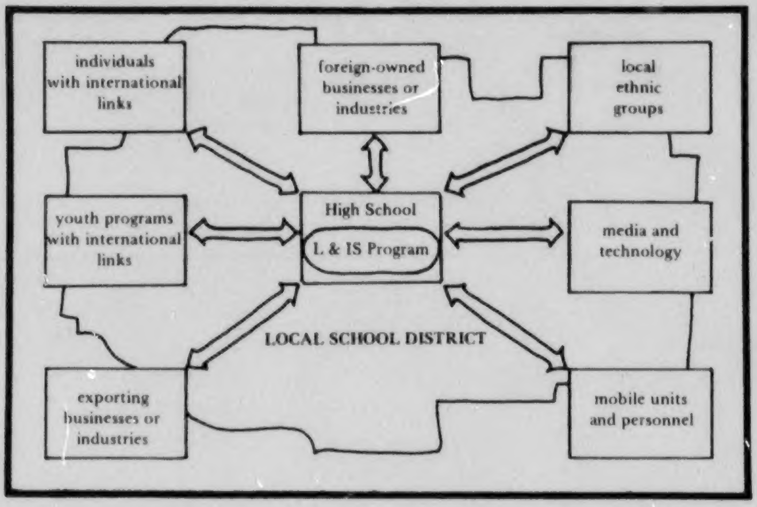
Model 1. The Magnet School



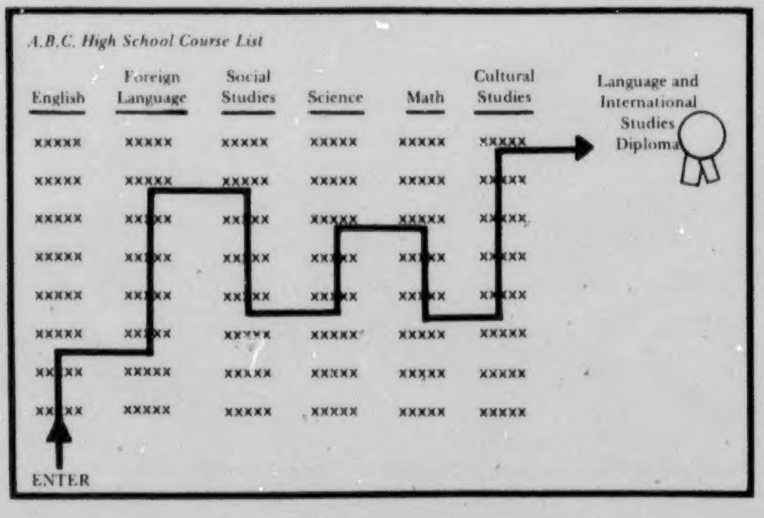
Model 2. The School- Within-A-School



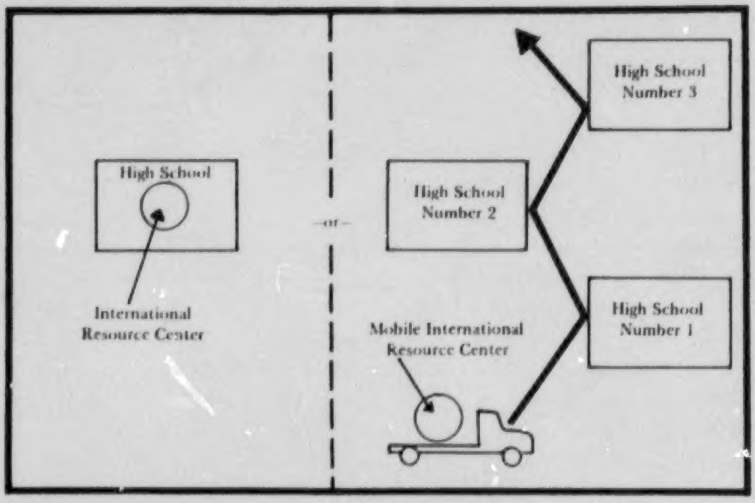
Model 3. The Consortium School


individuals with international links
foreign-owned businesses or industries
local ethnic groups
youth programs with international links
High School
L. & IS Program
media and technology
LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT
exporting businesses or industries
mobile units and personnel

Model 4. The Infusion or Community Participation Program


A.B.C. High School Course List
English
Foreign Language
Social Studies
Science
Math
Cultural Studies
Language and International Studies Diploma
ENTER

Model 5. The Strand Approach



Model 6. The International Resource Center

The Infusion or Community Participation Program

The essential feature of this model is that the community—as distinct from the school district—is searched for individuals and institutions with international links and relationships. These available resources are used to the fullest extent possible in any way that will enable interested high school students to learn as much as possible in the fields of language and international studies. The assumption is that the individuals and institutions would provide their services and expertise at very low cost, if not free of charge. The kinds of service and expertise available in any specific case will vary greatly from place to place, but no matter what they might be, they would have the distinct advantage of representing *actual, functioning* international links and relationships located in the home community or region of the student, rather than information gleaned primarily from books, films, lectures, and other secondary sources. Examples—three among hundreds—include using a local resident who is a native speaker of another language to provide instruction or conversational experiences in that language, using the managers of a foreign owned company and/or their spouses to provide instruction or experiences with respect to the culture of that country, and using a local farmer involved in agribusiness on a world scale to share with students facts of all kinds about his dealings with suppliers and buyers throughout the world, about world market and ecological trends, and so forth. Technological resources of all kinds that are accessible to the high school are also highly appropriate for inclusion in a program of this type. These may be made available by the State Education Agency or by other public or private groups, and include a variety of media such as language instruction by computer, television links with classroom instruction in other places, and so forth. All of these resources—human, institutional, and technological—are *infused into* the regular program of the high school in order to provide language learning and international study experiences that otherwise could not be afforded. Although this model in its pure form is most likely to be appropriate for schools in relatively isolated districts with limited financial resources, *elements of this model should be incorporated into all of the other models mentioned herein*. Even the preferred model, the magnet school, cannot attain its full potential in the absence of an active infusion or community participation program.

The Strand Approach

In many comprehensive high schools where a number of languages are taught and where a range of elective offerings is available, it may be possible for any given student to select a series of courses that will result in language mastery as well as growth in intercultural awareness and skills. Some comprehensive schools may need only to introduce a fourth year of study in one foreign language and/or one or two additional courses such as anthropology or area studies in order to make a strand approach possible. When combined with an extended exchange experience in another culture and an infusion program, the strand approach could lead to a viable program in language and international studies for interested students.

The International Resource Center

In cases where none of the above models is feasible, yet where interest in language and international studies is strong, a resource center should be developed to assist participating students and teachers. This could be a permanent, fixed center, or might be a mobile center serving many schools. No matter what print or nonprint resources are included in the center, or what technological wizardry may be available, the services of the center will be immeasurably improved if elements of the infusion or community participation approach are integrated into its operations.

It is unlikely that any of these six models would require unusual or exotic types of administration, supervision, staff organization, or student services or scheduling, and the "School Organization" working group therefore has not addressed these matters. The development of innovative internal organizational structures in response to local needs and opportunities is always in order, of course.

In any of the first three models (and with modifications to the second three) it is possible to implement an "immersion" approach to foreign language instruction. One particularly promising approach to developing foreign language skills and sensitivity to and knowledge of other cultures is through the use of a foreign language as the medium of instruction. This so-called "immersion" approach was first used on this continent in 1965 in a Montreal suburb where English-speaking children were introduced to Kindergarten and Grade 1 entirely in French, with French maintained along with English as media of instruction throughout all six years of elementary school. Children in this first program developed a degree of proficiency in French which is seldom, if ever, attained in foreign language programs with no measurable detrimental effects on their native language development and academic achievement. The results of this particular program were so favorable that this form of bilingual education has spread throughout Canada, so that today French immersion programs for English-speaking children exist in all ten provinces where the results of the first program have been replicated many times over. In the United States, Spanish, French, and German immersion programs have been operating with success in such states as California, Maine, New York, Maryland, and Wisconsin.

The advantages of this type of program for developing foreign language skills are many. First, in an immersion program the foreign language is not studied or taught *per se* but rather used as a medium for purposeful communication. There is a great deal of evidence which supports this communicative approach to language teaching, the success of the immersion programs noted above being just one example of its effectiveness. Second, the use of a foreign language for the teaching of other subjects does not take away class time from content subjects. Evaluations of both elementary and high school French immersion programs in Canada have demonstrated that the use of French as a medium of instruction has no long-term detrimental effects on the mastery of subject matter knowledge. Third, it appears that there would be no better way of learning about the culture, history, and geography of a foreign country than using the language through which the country's culture is expressed. What better way, for example, to learn about the history of Mexico than through Mexican history books written in Spanish by Mexican authors, and what better way to develop an appreciation and understanding of the roots of the current uneasy relations between that country and its northern neighbor?

There are, however, certain special needs which such a program would create. The need for competent teachers with native or near native-speaker competence in the language is most obvious. It should be emphasized that the best teachers for an immersion program would not be persons trained to teach foreign languages in traditional programs, but rather teachers competent to teach high school subjects who have native or near native-speaker proficiency in the language. While such personnel may be difficult or impossible to find in some localities, it may well be possible in and near large urban centers and in university communities with significant international populations.

It should also be noted that the Canadian students in high school French immersion programs have already studied French as a second language throughout elementary school and that American students typically begin high school with little, if any knowledge of foreign languages. Although we would urge implementation of the Canadian system, we recognize that it may not be feasible. It would therefore seem wise to offer students two years of instruction in the foreign language before introducing them to instruction in other subjects via the language. The third year of high school could include one or two subjects for which the foreign language is used as the medium of instruction, and during the fourth year students could be totally immersed in the foreign language, receiving all or nearly all instruction via the language. The two years of study of a second foreign language could be included during the second and third years of high school. The content of the non-language courses would be as outlined later although there may be an increased emphasis on the region or culture of the language of instruction.

ISSUES IN STUDENT RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

Leader: William Parrish

Reporter: Warren Royer

Panelists: Donald Holste
Wilma J. Lund
Mary Fritz
Charles Gloor
William Plater
Charlene Tibbetts
Barbara Yates

One must use some care in distinguishing between "recruitment" and "selection"; the one term implying, of course, that the program must be sold, to some extent at least, to prospective students; the other implying that there are plenty of candidates—one simply has to choose the most appropriate ones. Further, one might easily defend the position that the concept of Language and International Studies Schools is valuable for most students, so that the problem is not one of recruiting or selection at all, but one of infusing concepts into the regular curriculum of most schools. We should also note that the term "student" here means "secondary student". Inclusion of younger children in language and international studies programs, as many are prepared to do, would bring entirely different perspectives to the student recruitment idea.

Each of the models cited in Recommendation 3 which might call for a somewhat different student mix, and thus somewhat different recruiting or selection objectives. If the Language and International Studies School should be available as an alternative to a regular high school program open to all students in the district or feeder area, some basic qualifications still seem appropriate. Even if candidates for the school are largely self-nominated, they should have a clear idea of the thrust of the program and the demands that are going to be made on them before entering into it.

If one were to rely completely on self-nomination to fill the classes, there might well be cases where financial and other considerations might limit the available spaces to a number fewer than the number of candidates. In such cases, some type of selection process would have to be used.

In whatever ways students come into the Language and International Studies School, it seems to us that there are some basic considerations in the student selection process.

1. Language and International Studies Schools are aiming for a specific purpose; they cannot be all things to all people; administrators should be frank about that point in their descriptions and in their recruiting.

The implications of being a student at such a school are not completely clear at this time; but it might well mean additional hours spent doing homework, giving up a part in the school play or a chance for the basketball team, possibly even (because of highly motivated competition within the group) taking a chance on a slightly lower grade point average. All these possibilities should be clear to prospective students. In such cases self-nomination is one indicator of powerful motivation, and it is certainly overworking a cliché to say that strongly self-motivated students are a plus.

2. Administrators should rely on industry for help. Cooperation between schools and industry has been sporadic in the past, but both need to recognize that international understanding is not only a humane and cultural thing, but a powerful economic one, as well. While we talk of international understanding as "good" and hold that everybody ought to have more of it, it is hard economic necessity which forces many corporations into the position of understanding other cultures. They literally cannot survive without it. These are not always multinational giants, either. Very modest firms in small towns and cities often rely heavily on international trade. These exchanges are light years removed from trading beads to savages. Many of the dealings are with less-developed but still sophisticated countries for complex engineering or computer equipment. This means a shared understanding, not simply a group of people to be exploited by another group.

For these reasons, industrial friends could become one of the best friends the Language and International Studies School has. The community of interests should be pointed out to both school people and people from industry, and friends in industry should be asked to assist in recruiting, promoting, and supporting the Language and International Studies School concept. Other forms of cooperation will be suggested in IX (below).

3. Administrators should not paper over the fact that they are asking children to work hard, and that they are urging them to get into a program that puts demands on their abilities and on their time. If a community believes in Language and International Studies Schools, it should not be bashful about asking students to believe in them, too.

While it is doubtless true that a child does not have to be in the upper 10% of the population academically to benefit from the Language and International Studies School curriculum, it is almost surely true that a child has to be willing to expend a good deal of effort, and perhaps even take some risks. In cases where a high percentage of the recruits to Language and International Studies Schools are college bound, the possible effects on grade point average and class rank from competing with such a group might make a difference in college admissions for some students; and ways in which the curriculum matches college entrance requirements might also call for some thought.

Whatever qualities it takes to make a child willing to undertake and persist in challenging tasks—these are the qualities the Language and International Studies School needs to be seeking.

We alluded earlier to the need to differentiate between the terms "recruiting" and "selecting". In some communities, the emphasis should be on "recruiting". The program will need to be sold in some areas at least where there is doubt that the concept has wide appeal; a feeling that there are so few students and so few parents who want it that it will have to be promoted vigorously.

Further, there may be some tension between the need to recruit vigorously, on the one hand, and the possible need to be selective, on the other. An example of such a situation might occur if enrollments got beyond the physical capacity of the plant. There might be other situations in which such tensions might arise, and we offer no solutions; only the warning that they might exist, and that they might simply have to be lived with.

If the program has to be sold, there are a number of powerful selling points arising from the school itself which might be used.

A. Excellence of program. It should go without saying that whatever model is followed, it has to be good. Excellence is an attractive selling point in any model of school.
B. In cases where the model is one which cuts across individual school boundaries, that fact itself might be a selling point.
C. The fact that it offers an opportunity to get a special skill (as language, for example).
D. In some models, the fact that it might offer an opportunity for a well-developed residential program might be used as a selling point.
E. Some co-curricular activities might be very attractive and not available elsewhere. Kabuki Theater might be an example, or soccer instead of football.
F. A possibility of a trip abroad would be very appealing to many.

There are a number of ways by which Language and International Studies Schools might enhance its program, and in turn might attract parents and students.

A. Corporations might be persuaded to put into it computers, people, or other facilities.
B. The teacher might find concrete ways of promoting economic self-interest.

There are a number of possible groups which might be interested in recruiting students for a Language and International Studies School. One might, for example:

Do recruitment through an international elementary school program which would feed into the international secondary school.
Do recruitment at the junior high school level.

Do recruitment at the 9th grade level.
Do recruitment through immigrant groups.
Do recruitment among people who have lived abroad.
Do recruitment through gifted programs.
Have public leaders speak to parents and students.
Ask corporate leaders for help in recruiting.
Work through state educational agencies and through professional associations.

In general, the school should find something it can give back to the community which will not only be a "thank you" for support but which will enhance the sense of community; the sense of common project which is worthwhile for not only the members of the Language and International Studies School, but for the community as a whole. A Russian folk song club which could perform for senior citizens' groups, the Kiwanis Club, or similar organizations, might be unique to the school and serve this function well.

Parents should be used. The school should have a parent advisory group, and there should be an understanding that parents are a part of the program. Parents must agree to support the program, in order for their children to be admitted, and parents must get involved.

Finally, the teachers themselves can be one of the strongest attractions. It is difficult to think of anything more attractive to parents than a group of hard-working, enthusiastic teachers who are knowledgeable about their subject fields and committed to the program of the school. One can operate with old desks, obsolete equipment, and ragged textbooks, but one cannot operate with worn out and obsolete teachers. A strong staff outweighs every disadvantage.

ISSUES IN CURRICULUM: ARTS, LANGUAGES, AND HUMANITIES

Coleaders: Harry Broudy
Stanley Madeja

Reporter: William Waack

Panelists: Kent Anderson
Elmar Antonsen
Joan Bailey
Mary A. Gary
Barbara Gutowsky
Marilene Haidu
Margaret Howard
Braj B. Kachru
William MacDonald
Anne Moore
D. Peters
Sandra Savignon
S. Shinall
Ralph Smith
Adele Suslick
Albert Turner

Most discussions of the organization and curriculum of the Language and International Studies School emphasize a philosophy which seems to blend the specialization of foreign language study with the broad perspective of the history and culture of the nation(s) selected for study. Since part of the school's declared purpose is preparation for successful living in an international multilingual community, such an approach is probably the most effective and the most realistic. Thus, in developing the curriculum for this type of school, it is evident that the various fields of learning must examine the content and skills inherent in the subject-matter areas for the purpose of selecting those learning experiences and concepts which will be in consonance with the general goals and objectives of the school and also will serve as a means for expanding and enriching the intellectual and aesthetic horizons of each student—to develop, in other words, an effective interdisciplinary program.

This interdisciplinary program approach seems naturally to lend itself to the arts and humanities. Indeed, if one of the fundamental purposes of the Language and International Studies High School is to promote international understanding, then one of its primary characteristics ought to be its function as a humanistic enterprise with the humanistic modes of thought, values, and processes of discourse permeating the curriculum. Understanding the human condition is, after all, an ideal way to bring about an understanding among peoples of different cultures, and understanding the human condition *is* the humanities.

Now, if the humanities are to provide the guideposts for the curricular structure of the Language and International Studies High School, how is this to be accomplished? Initially it must be understood that the subject matter of a curriculum based in the humanities is the study of humanistic traditions: the ideas and thoughts which represent the human consensus about those values and ideals by which people live. Within such a curriculum, a student would study the ideas generated in the great works of the past and present, as well as engage in reasoned investigation and contemplation of the human condition in his or her own society and in the societies of others.

In a Language and International Studies High School, the emphasis would be on language as an expressive and descriptive analytic tool—how language is shaped, how language is used to express self, how ideas are conveyed through language, and how those ideas are part of the human condition. Language study would be an essential part of the curriculum whether in foreign language, English, mathematics, the arts, the social sciences, or the physical sciences; and the main goal of the curriculum would be to have each student develop a reasoning humanistic mind as an instrument with which he or she could create and analyze ideas, could relate them to cultures and value systems, and could order and link ideas to reach conclusions and explanations. Thus, the humanities would act as the umbrella for the total curricular structure; thus, the methods of humanistic inquiry, analysis, and discourse would permeate the curriculum.

Closely related to the concept of the humanities as an umbrella for the total curricular structure is a second important distinguishing characteristic of the curriculum of the Language and International Studies High School: the provision for an intensive study of world cultures based upon aesthetic content. This could best be accomplished through comparative studies of the aesthetic and artistic indicators of specific cultures. The curriculum, for example, would juxtapose, compare, and contrast the values and folkways of a particular country in order to develop the concept that the culture of that country dictates its aesthetic values and judgements and informs its aesthetic output. Such a curricular approach would emphasize the concept that these aesthetic concerns also affect modes of behavior, social patterns, modes of communication, and other essential characteristics of the culture. In addition, cultural studies and their modes of analysis and criticism could act as a bridge to examination of other areas of study such as the sciences, mathematics, social sciences, and language.

There is little doubt that the use of such curricular strategies as bases for understanding a particular culture could give a deeper insight into the historical roots of the country than could the shifting political philosophies which, while important, sometimes result in distortion of that culture. It must be emphasized, however, that the key to such a study of world culture is *aesthetic content*, that is, content as embodied in the art forms and processes as distinguished from that found in survey courses or anthropological studies of world culture. For it is the aesthetic content of a culture which brings to life the environment of all the cultures of the earth, past and present, and which presents in a form unique to each of the arts the successes and failures of all people. It is the aesthetic content which mirrors the political, societal, and cultural problems and foibles of any selected civilization at any selective time, as well as presenting the language and the manners and mannerisms of people at all social levels. It is the aesthetic content as exemplified in the various art forms and processes which can most effectively create a concrete visualization of what was, what is, and what will be.

A third distinguishing characteristic of the Language and International Studies High School is the opportunity to experience, create, and/or participate in the arts of different cultures. Such interaction, of course, involves using the materials and methods of the artist within the content of a particular culture. Whether the artistic form be music, theatre, dance, film, or the visual arts, there exists within each art form an opportunity to experience vicariously the ideas and precepts of a particular culture. This emphatic experience, this "feeling of kinship," this active involvement of student as creator and/or consumer is closely related to the basic concept of intercultural education, a primary component of the international high school. Argene Wilson has stated, for example:

> Intercultural education is the study of cultural, social, religious, ethnic, and national groups and the meeting, discussing, and working with members of those various groups for the purpose of learning empathy for a multiplicity of human horizons. In shorthand, it is the study of and experience with other people (1977).

More recently, while discussing intercultural education, Shirley Hufstedler, Secretary of the Department of Education, has written:

> We must somehow contrive to equip our students with sufficient empathy to understand and deal realistically with other cultures...Only sitting in another's place can we learn that there are real and legitimate conflicts of values and interests among the peoples of the world, as well as a common core of humanity and concern about our mutual planetary home (1980).

Thus can be seen the direct relationship between empathy, a basic element of the arts, and empathy, a basic element of intercultural education.

Empathy implies communicative response and, at the core of the philosophy of the Language and International Studies High School is, of course, the objectives of multilingual competency in order that an individual may communicate effectively with people of different cultures. However, according to some individuals, such communication goes beyond the accurate, fluent use of language:

> The real function of foreign language teaching is not merely to communicate eloquently or fluently, but to apprehend

> reality. We are all slaves of the language to which we are born and raised and in which we think. We comprehend reality through language and through it we must also express our appreciation of reality (1980).

The mere knowledge of a language, therefore, does not insure a clear understanding of what really is being said. Indeed, some recent research has shown that proficiency in language does not insure the knowledge of world issues and/or global understanding:

> People actually acquire language competency with the least amount of pain when the focus of their language behavior is not the language itself, but some sort of communication, some sort of message (Twaroz, 1980).

Language as the apprehension of reality–language as the communication of authenticity–language as the sender of messages: each of these qualities is also inherent in the language of the arts.

This concept may be illustrated by a brief examination of the art of theatre. It is clear that the real meaning of a foreign language cannot be realized fully until it is sounded for the ears. Human beings spoke long before reading and writing were utilized as methods of communication. To hear the onomatopoetic nuances of words–to hear the rhythmic patterns of sentence forms–to hear and understand the real connotation of what is being said and what is being felt through vocal tone, inflection, and force–this is one method by which language authenticity may be achieved. Then, to these elements also must be added the gestures, movements, and facial expressions which aid in delineating the real meaning of what is being communicated. Through the theatre art form such understanding of a language can be accomplished. The actual performance (not simply reading aloud) of one of Benavente's plays, for example, can result in an authenticity of language for both actors and audience; and the visual elements of gesture and movement will most certainly add to that authenticity.

It is evident from the preceding discussion that active interface with the arts of different cultures should be an important learning experience in the Language and International Studies High School. It is important, therefore, that such a school make provisions for an in-depth participation in the creating and/or appreciation of an art form related to a particular country or culture. Such participation would include elective study in creative writing, the visual arts, music, dance, film, and theatre as additional areas of interest with specific opportunities afforded to students with particular talents in one or more of the fine-performing arts. There also should be included frequent opportunities to experience the arts of different cultures through interaction with visiting artists and/or artist-in-residence programs. Contrary to the feelings of some educators that the arts and humanities provide only "high culture" learning experiences, it should be evident that it is through the arts and humanities that an effective intercultural educational program can be achieved.

The distinguishing characteristics of the Language and International Studies High School already discussed have been examined from the viewpoint of the part which the arts and humanities can/should play in such a learning environment. All of these characteristics, however, are related to the major objective of such a school: student competency in one language in depth and beginning mastery of a second. First of all, the language in which a student might specialize should include not only the traditional languages taught in high schools but also the "less traditionally taught." Furthermore, with increased student competency, the teaching of other subject areas connected with the language would be included wherever such resources exist.

In addition to developing language competency, it also would be imperative that the student acquire a broad, comparative perspective in such matters as history, culture, and values for the chosen language concentration. That is, the language course should include study of the countries or regions where the language dominates. A French program, for example, would include the study of France, Canada, French-speaking Africa, and the Carribbean. Concurrently, literature courses would center upon comparative world literature, comparative world folklore, language families, and the cultural aspects of language. Finally, as an integral component of language competency, the study would participate in an in-depth cultural experience in the country or region of language concentration. Whether such an experience would involve a summer program abroad, a junior-senior year abroad, or participation in AFS exchange programs, the important thing would be that the student be given the opportunity to live, work, and play in an environment where he or she would use the achieved language competency.

Although there have been a number of changes in the English curriculum over the past decades, there have remained certain curriculum priorities which might be said to form its core. One assumes that the first priorities include instruction in reading and writing. Both reading and writing range from basic decoding and encoding in grade one to sophisticated critical and rhetorical skills in grade twelve; the degree of sophistication demanded of students raises according to perceptions of the students' abilities, the demands of the community, the teachers' training and awareness, and the perceptions of the future of the students. Second to reading and writing come speaking and listening, which are rarely taught as extensively as the first two skills nor with as high a set of expectations. A third priority concerns a body of knowledge or lore to be learned. Some of this knowledge concerns language: grammar, syntax, usage, and rhetorical figures. Some concerns literature and folklore or cultural lore: authors, characters, incidents, stories, poems that are considered part of the common heritage. The amount of knowledge required in the curriculum has varied greatly as have the specifics of what is to be known by whom at what level.

The role of English in foreign language education at first seems simple: many foreign language teachers complain that today's students do not know grammar and thus have trouble learning the grammar of a foreign language. The complaints I have heard include the lack of knowledge of the cases and tenses of a latinate approach to grammar. It is true that English teachers do not teach such terms as *dative* or *subjunctive*, primarily because they either do not exist in English or exist as rare forms (as in the next sentence). It would nonetheless be useful were a group from English and various foreign languages to set forth a practical list of grammatical terms and concepts in English that could serve as a basis for foreign language instruction.

A more subtle way in which English language instruction could support foreign language instruction as well as enrich the students' understanding of English would be an increased emphasis on language history and etymology. It is important for students to realize the extent to which English itself is a polyglot language;

at the same time some of the concepts of language history can aid students in learning another language. Whether these concepts should precede or accompany foreign language instruction seems less of an issue.

A third way in which English and foreign language instruction can support each other is through the broader study of semantics and the relation of language to culture. Although some have disputed the Whorf-Sapir hypothesis that language affects the ways by which a culture perceives reality, recent semiologists have tended to support it. Certainly it helps anyone to realize that simple translation of a word does not imply an exact translation of the cultural nuances of that word. Even the word *nuance* (a loan word) cannot be fully translated into *connotation* (another loan word) or overtone (a metaphor). An important aspect of English language instruction—and a neglected aspect—is that of semantics and particularly of the relationship of language to "reality." That such instruction would support foreign language instruction in subtle but important ways cannot be denied.

English certainly plays a part in multicultural programs, particularly in the study of literature. A part of the literature, perhaps a great part of it should deal with cultural matters: mythology, folklore, and the literary heritage that becomes a part of the intellectual tacit dimension of most native speakers of English in the United States. This folklore has many roots: European, Native American, African, and Oriental; certainly the roots should be made a part of instruction so that students come to understand that the culture of the United States is not indigenous and did not emerge with the Declaration of Independence. At the same time, this exploration of culture allows for comparison with the native culture of the learner. In general, folklore and cultural information should be presented for its own sake up to grade five; after that some comparison of cultures and their myths, beliefs, and lore should be explored. As a part of that exploration there should come a study of the metaphors which peoples of different cultures use in dealing with their world. In Polynesian culture, the sky is a canoe; in northern land cultures it is often a tent. Exploring such differences in the metaphoric construction of reality may help students to see the ways by which their culture and their language are related. It is at this point that literature and, in fact, language instruction should explore the relationships between language and culture. To do so using two languages can make the exploration more exciting and more meaningful.

Instruction in English in a multicultural setting should certainly include the literatures of the various cultures, both in translation and—to the extent possible for the teacher—in the native language of the author. The literature should, I think, be studied as an expression of culture, and the interplay between cultural and universal themes should be an object of attention. As a culmination of English in multicultural education there should occur an exploration of the very abstraction *culture* as a linguistic, geographical, historical, and sociological phenomenon. Students might come to see that a particular culture is hard to isolate, hard to define, particularly through its literature and its lore. A further consideration might be whether it is possible to become a member of another culture and whether it is possible to be bicultural and multicultural. Although the question may seem abstract, nonetheless it is very real for those who are being asked to be multicultural.

The role of English in international studies is similar to that in multicultural studies save that the canvas becomes broader. Clearly, any understanding of the cultures and societies of the world involves understanding of their literatures, not merely the monuments of those literatures, the major authors, and the histories, but those formal and thematic aspects that serve to make the literatures distinctive. Persian poetry, for instance, is based on a highly repetitive melodic lines with rhyme and other kinds of repetition. Thai literature is closely allied to dance and therefore shares some of those characteristics. Such features tend to make English poetry harsh to the ear of an Iranian or a Thai. This may seem a minor point, but it illustrates the notion that literatures differ, and yet they may encompass many of the same human concerns. Beyond that point a further point could be made that people from different cultures see different things in the same work of literature. The poem, the play, the novel may evoke quite different responses depending on the cultural heritage of the reader. Among certain tribes in Africa, instead of a hero, Hamlet is a villain for daring to oppose the orderly succession of chiefdom through marriage to the queen. Another kind of difference is that between American readers who tend to look for morals in what they read and Italian readers who tend to look at formal and emotional elements. Both the writing and the reading of literature are culturally determined, and in international studies one can explore the phenomenon in order to become further aware of the role of culture in the world.

English has another function in international studies beyond that dealing with language, literature, and culture: the study of argument. Many of the issues: political, economic, ecological that would emerge in a global education are the subject of controversy. In English, one can look dispassionately at the presentation of these issues, the rhetoric that is used to advance positions, and the logic of argument. Such examination is, to a certain extent, the hallmark of the educated person, the person who can examine statements and judge their validity. Increasingly, it seems, we are asked to make decisions hastily and on slender evidence but inflammatory rhetoric. To make those decisions well, we must look through the language of the issues, we must examine the motives of those who argue for or against an action, and we must understand the history behind those who argue one way or another.

SUMMARY: CURRICULAR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ARTS AND HUMANITIES

In summary, the Language and International Studies High School should possess four distinguishing characteristics:

1. A curricular structure built under the umbrella of the humanities;
2. An intensive study of world cultures based upon aesthetic content;
3. Student participation as creator/consumer in the arts of different cultures; and, most important,
4. Student competency in one language in depth and beginning mastery of a second with concurrent opportunities to test that competency in a real-life environment.

Whether the organizational pattern of the individual school is the magnet school, the school-within-a-school, the consortium school, the infusion/community participation program, the strand approach, or the international resource center, the arts and humanities should play a major role in the development of true language competency. Playing such a role means the development of curricular programs involving a course structure based upon five cultural cores each of which contains the arts and humanities as integral unifying elements:

1. The intercultural core comprised of a general education component emphasizing a world view;
2. The language core emphasizing the development of multilingual competency;
3. The basic requirements core containing those courses required by the state or local education agency for graduation;
4. The electives core containing those courses in various subject-matter areas not required for graduation but necessary to meet the needs and talents of all students;
5. The cultural program core containing student created activities and unique delivery systems from outside the school itself.

Together, these cultural cores have specific curricular implications for the arts and humanities. Among them are the following:

1. The numerous teaching/learning strategies inherent in each of the arts and humanities will need to be evaluated and selected for use according to the specific needs of a particular school;
2. The in-depth study of the language of a selected culture will need to include the processes or modes of thought through which the humanistic studies analyze, characterize, and express in language the thoughts and ideas within the context of that culture;
3. The in-depth study of the language of a selected culture will need to include the cultural and aesthetic bases of that culture;
4. The curriculum will need to include study of comparative cultures with the arts and humanities as the major focus.
5. The in-depth study of the language of a selected culture will need to include active student participation as creator

and/or consumer in creative experiences in the fine/performing arts, using the materials and methods of the artists within the context of that culture;

6. The traditionally accepted courses in the arts and humanities will need to be made available to students as electives.
7. Cultural programs will need to be drawn from a variety of sources to reflect the curriculum content. This would include unique delivery systems such as cable television and satellite systems.

It should be clear that the eventual implementation of a unique learning environment such as the Language and International Studies High School is dependent upon the support and commitment of educational leadership to the concept of international studies–the world view. Hopefully, that commitment will not be based so much upon the past and present of this planet as it will be based upon future survival. Norman Cousins once wrote that, "since human nature is always changing, one of the purposes of education is to see that it changes for the better."

How can education serve that purpose? Jerome Bruner has given one answer. To educate for the future, he says, individuals first of all must be trained for problem finding, not problem solving; secondly, individuals must be trained for the performance of what he labels "unpredictable services"; and, most important, in a technological age, individuals must be trained to create what human beings can produce but no device can: art in every form (Bruner, 1972). Will our world, he inquires be daring enough to go beyond "to the cultivation of the uniquely human?" Perhaps, with the implementation of the language centered international high school, Bruner's question will be answered in the affirmative–if education is willing to take the dare.

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ISSUES IN CURRICULUM: MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCES

Coleaders: John Dossey
Peter Shoresman

Reporter: John Dossey

Panelists: Ray Boehmer
H.M. Dyasi
R.L. Fischer
Orrin Gould
Anita J. Sandoval
Ken Travers
Charles M. Weller
Susan Zaccardi

The design and development of mathematics and science curricula for the proposed Language and International Studies Schools is an exciting and challenging task. The charge takes on even greater meaning when one examines the severe global problems relating to food supply, energy, environmental, and political problems. The resolution of these problems requires individuals who are both competent in their respective fields of endeavor and who also have a global view of the impact of their discipline on related disciplines.

The curricular development process for such schools is constrained by a variety of boundary conditions. The first of these is some planners' sense of the strict sequential nature of much of the content of the mathematics and science curricula, which sense can certainly be questioned. The hierarchical nature of the concepts, principles, and skills in both areas dictates a careful attention to the selection and sequencing of the material selected for inclusions. This process is further bounded by university entrance requirements, standardized entrance examinations, and state and local mandated programs. With these conditions in mind, several program-specific selection rules can be stated to help guide in the development of courses of study in mathematics and science for Language and International Studies Schools.

The first of these is the development of mathematical and scientific concepts as areas of human activity. This development should show the growth of the mathematical, biological, and physical sciences as human attempts to understand, model, and solve problems arising from the interaction between man and the environment. Such an approach to the subject areas will highlight the multicultural nature of the development of mathematics and the sciences, as well as provide motivation for and insight into the main concepts and problem strategies used in the fields.

In addition to this criterion, the content selected might emphasize the wide variety of applications of mathematics and the sciences. These applications could come from the areas of economics, political science, communications, psychology, business administration, the fine arts, and medicine.

Further, the concepts, principles, skills, and applications selected must reflect the logical and structural relationships holding within each subject matter field. Physical models, symbolic forms, and spoken descriptions must be used in each case to insure the development of the appropriate mental imagery necessary to the understanding and nurture of problem-solving skills.

A fourth criterion would be that the curriculum in mathematics or in the sciences reflect emerging trends in the area. In particular, the curricula must recognize and react to the role of the computer as a tool in the sciences and mathematics. Further, the curricula developed must prepare the student to see the role of technology in general. Such a study should enable students to better under- and apply technological skills to the solutions of important personal and professional problems.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND INSTRUCTION IN THE SCIENCES

The concepts of mathematics and many of the concepts of the sciences are already acknowledged among the more developed nations, making the issue of instruction in a second language not as crucial as in some other curriculum areas. Such instruction adds little to one's knowledge of the subject matter or to the direct understanding of the people speaking that tongue. Furthermore, given the difficulty of many of the major concepts in mathematics and the sciences, it is clear that basic instruction should take place in the mother tongue of English. However, carefully selected readings from a second language might be used as supplementary material.

When students have developed a high level of proficiency in a given second language and when fluent and knowledgeable teachers in a content area are available, instruction in that second language might be provided. Care should be given, however, to introduce the most difficult concepts in a language form with which the students are best capable of developing a sound understanding of the content material.

Another role for the study of languages as they relate to mathematics and science emerges in the study of less commonly taught languages, especially where the languages are not as technically oriented as those of western Europe. Here, the study of the concepts and their meanings in the second languages, as an adjunct to regular instruction, can provide an insight into the beliefs and knowledge structures of a given group of people. This is especially true in the case of languages which do not even allow for the expression of many of the basic concepts and ideas of modern mathematics and science.

MATHEMATICS CURRICULUM

As we move into the ninth decade of the twentieth century, the secondary mathematics curriculum is in a stage of transition. Several professional groups (NACOME, 1975; NCSM, 1977; & NCTM, 1980) have made suggestions to be considered in this transformation. These proposals all call for the infusion of relevant applications, increased study of data analysis and statistics, and the development and use of computer skills as alternatives to a geometry and calculus curriculum. This call for a shift from a structurally oriented study of the sixties and early seventies is more than a result of a "Back to the Basics" backlash. It is the direct result of the rapid growth and use of the concepts and principles of the mathematical sciences in all phases of life. This explosion of mathematical knowledge and its applications has been estimated to have a half-life of about ten years (Lucas, 1980).

These changes in the secondary curriculum will require the student of the future to have an increased knowledge of the mathematical sciences to function effectively in both the personal and professional sectors of daily life. The goals and objectives of the Language and International Studies School will add to those of the regular school curriculum the understanding application of these mathematical concepts and principles as they apply to global issues. To meet these criteria, one *possible* arrangement among many for the mathematics curriculum for Language and International Studies Schools might be as shown in Figure 1. (This arrangement serves as an alternative for students without a penchant for mathematics).

This proposed curriculum contains a stalk of general problem-solving skills, including computer science. This stalk of skills is interfaced with all of the branches of mathematics, as well as with all of the areas of science study. In addition to this infusion of problem-solving and computer skills, the suggested curriculum

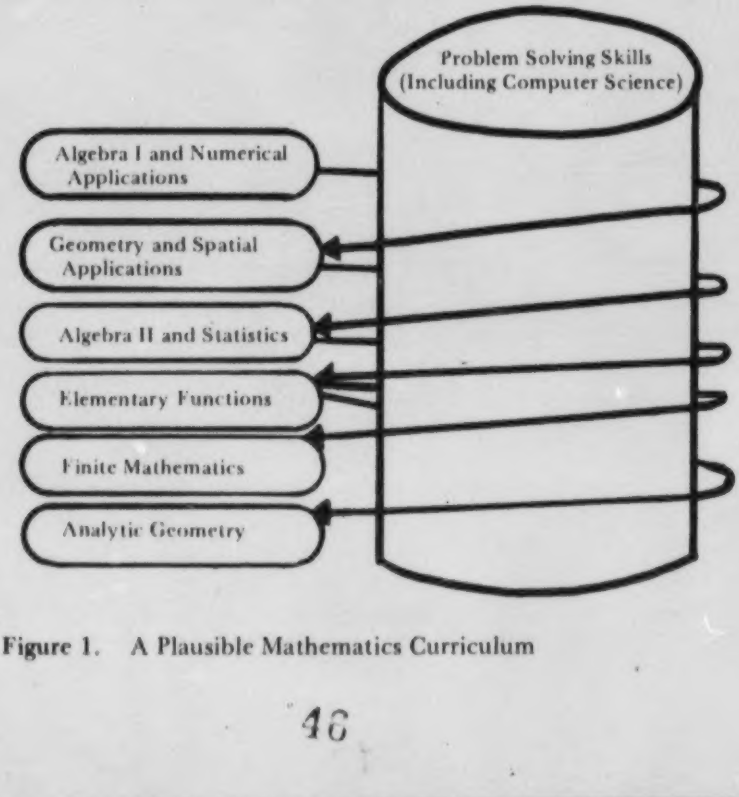

Problem Solving Skills
(Including Computer Science)
Algebra I and Numerical Applications
Geometry and Spatial Applications
Algebra II and Statistics
Elementary Functions
Finite Mathematics
Analytic Geometry

Figure 1. A Plausible Mathematics Curriculum

contains a modified version of the traditional secondary curriculum. This modification contains Algebra I and Numerical Applications, Geometry and Spatial Applications, Algebra II and Statistics, and three semester courses: Elementary Functions, Finite Mathematics, and Analytic Geometry. While by title these courses may seem to be well established, their proposed content differs both in scope and suggested mode of presentation.

The Algebra I and Numerical Applications course is designed to cover the majority of the traditional Algebra I course. However, in order to adjust for the inclusion of applications and computer topics, some revisions must be made. Usiskin (1980) has suggested that the excessive emphasis and resultant time spent on the solution of quadratic equations by factoring and on rational functions might be postponed until Algebra II. In place, the time traditionally spent on these topics can be devoted to the study of computer topics, numerical problem solving strategies, and applications. In addition, the time spent on developing solution techniques for age, lever, mixture, digit, and work problems might be better spent on the solution of more realistic and relevant problems. In some cases, students might even be assigned a particular "real-world" problem at the school or in the local community to work on as an individual or as part of a team. These problems should focus on numerical situations involving functional relationships. Where appropriate, the application of the computer to solutions should be emphasized. Several good sources of problems and applications are currently available (MAA, 1980; NCTM, 1979; NCTM, 1980a). The textbook entitled *Algebra Through Applications With Probability and Statistics* seems to be quite appropriate to serve as a base text for a course such as the proposed Algebra I and Numerical Applications. It would require supplementing in the area of computer applications.

One version of the second year of mathematics in the Language International Studies Schools' mathematics curriculum might focus on the analysis of spatial relations and the related measurement formulas (particularly for less mathematically talented students). The revision of this portion of the curriculum could begin with a careful analysis of the concepts and principles that make up the geometry curriculum. This analysis could be directed at the discovery and noting of the principles which require proof and those which only require demonstrations. The development of this course might stress proof when it is appropriate, but minimize it when the students have attained the necessary proof skills and the present problem does not add to them.

The reduction of the focus on proof and other materials not essential for a good understanding of basic plane and solid geometry could allow for a minimal inclusion of new material. This new material might be an extension of the probability applications from the Algebra I and Numerical Applications course. Here the use of area and other measurement concepts can be brought to bear on the geometric aspects of probability. Additional computer work might be done with Monte Carlo approximations of areas of irregular regions and related probabilities.

Special emphasis in the teaching of geometry should be placed on the consideration of rigid motions, congruence, and similarity in 2 and 3 dimensions. These should be developed with an emphasis on the manipulation and careful examination of geometric objects from the environment. Students in this version of the course might be taught to carefully examine objects in terms of their geometric properties. When appropriate in class, the students could be required to construct models of geometric bodies. In particular, the students could have the experience of considering polyhedra (regular or semi-regular) and determining their reflectional and rotational symmetries. Additional work could be done with the application of the ideas of symmetry in problem solving and applications. No textbook is currently available for this course, but some currently being written might cover the bulk of the course outlined above.

The third year of the mathematics curriculum for one group of students might stress the central role occupied by functions—polynomial, circular, exponential, and logarithmic—in mathematics. This study would emphasize the relationship existing between functional rules and their graphs with an accent on interpreting physical phenomena via graphs of functions whenever possible. In addition, the course could develop the skills of rational functions which was delayed from the first year of algebra.

The study of functions could thus be related to applications in the study of business decisions (linear programming), interative operations (root finding using a computer), growth in biological and nuclear situations (exponential functions), engineering problems (circular functions), and a host of other uses. A portion of the time for this study of the applications of mathematics to real world problems having global significance might be derived from the deletion of topics dealing with the laborious hand calculations of results involving logarithmic and circular functions.

In this program, as the usual material on the study of probability contained in third year algebra has been transferred to Algebra I and to Geometry, additional emphasis might be placed on the development of the statistics strand through variation and correlation. These topics would be considered with an emphasis placed on interpretation, not on calculations. Computer simulations and project work in this area would be especially beneficial for students in the Language and International Studies Schools. Special emphasis in these projects might be placed on sampling and data analysis, with data selected from demographic and other human related data sets.

The fourth and final year of the mathematics curriculum for some students could consist of an additional one semester course entitled Elementary Functions followed by the selection of one of two other one semester courses: Finite Mathematics or Analytic Geometry. For students planning to continue their work in mathematics and the sciences at the university level the sequence of Elementary Functions and Analytic Geometry would be most appropriate. For students entering the areas of business or general social studies, the combination of Elementary Functions and Finite Mathematics might be more appropriate.

The content of the Elementary Functions and Analytic Geometry courses could carefully parallel the syllabi for those courses as they are currently taught. The approach in the Analytical Geometry course might be from a vector viewpoint which carefully stresses geometric relationships. Stress should still be placed on the use of the computer in the study of the functional and curve sketching applications of the courses.

One content of the Finite Mathematics course could consider the methods of mathematics in the areas of linear programming, network theory, matrices, and additional areas of probability and statistics.

This mathematics curriculum includes all of the content regularly found in the traditional four-year mathematics curriculum for secondary schools, but alternative courses for advanced students should be provided. In addition, this alternative provides for the development of problem solving skills beyond those normally encountered in traditional programs. This focus on problem solving and the applications of mathematics to the resolution of problems from the real world having global dimensions sets the Language International Studies Schools' mathematics curriculum apart from the regular school curriculum in mathematics.

SCIENCE CURRICULUM

The same criteria that applied to the selection and sequencing of content in mathematics also apply to the science curriculum. Thus, this curriculum should reflect the growth and development of the sciences, their application to the solution of human problems, and emerging areas of scientific research and development. While pursuing these objectives, the curriculum must also provide a sound base for integrating scientific knowledge and adequately prepare students for later studies in the sciences. In addition, the curriculum must reflect the central role that scientific concepts, principles, and skills play in the solution of global problems and the maintenance of constructive international relations.

The status of the current secondary science curriculum does not afford the breadth of coverage mentioned above. Neither is the focus of present content that suggested above. Recent status surveys of science teaching indicate that far less than 50 percent of secondary students are completing coursework in either physics or chemistry. Only 21 percent of the states require more than one year of science study at the high school level. This, combined with the "Back to the Basics" movement, has moved science education from its central role in the sixties to a much lower position in the general secondary school curriculum. Further evidence indicates that the required coursework is becoming much more objective-oriented with less emphasis being placed on understanding the processes and applications of science (DeRose, Lockard, & Paldy, 1980).

With this evidence, and the lack of a clear set of recommendations for the shape and direction of the secondary science program, the Language and International Studies Schools have both a need and an opportunity to assume a leadership role in developing a stronger and more relevant science curriculum. Their programs should become beacons for the secondary school curriculum in general in their explicit focus on man and his existence as a significant component of the cosmos. These programs, in addition to providing a rigorous basic science background in biology, chemistry, and physics, should attempt to incorporate the central idea that human activities can and do change the conditions of the natural world, sometimes in a beneficial way, at other times in a deleterious way.

The development of the curricula for the various areas of the biological and physical sciences should also interface with the problem solving stalk shown in the mathematics curriculum model given in Figure 1. Special emphasis should be given to those problem-solving skills which are germane to scientific investigations and thought. Applications of computer modelling should be used when appropriate.

Three models for conceptualizing the science curriculum are presented as examples on the following pages. The first is a curriculum which closely approximates the traditional science curriculum. The second is a program which is constructed about the module concept with a strong emphasis on the interactions of man with nature. The third provides a format for structuring a curriculum around the interactions between biological and physical phenomena.

Model I

This proposed curriculum contains the core of the traditional secondary science curriculum, but the content and the stress on it have been reorganized. The courses contained in the curriculum are Science in an Emerging World, Biology, and Ecological Studies, Physical Sciences I, Physical Sciences II, and Advanced Biology and Ecology. The sequence and relationship of these courses in the stalk of problem solving and computer skills is as shown in Figure 2.

The first year course, Science and the Emerging World, should focus on the history and development of the various areas of science (biology, chemistry, physics, ecology, geology,...), the people involved, and the input of various cultures and philosophies. In the portion of the course devoted to each of these areas of science, emphasis should be placed on careers in each area and on the role played by each area in the consideration and solution of

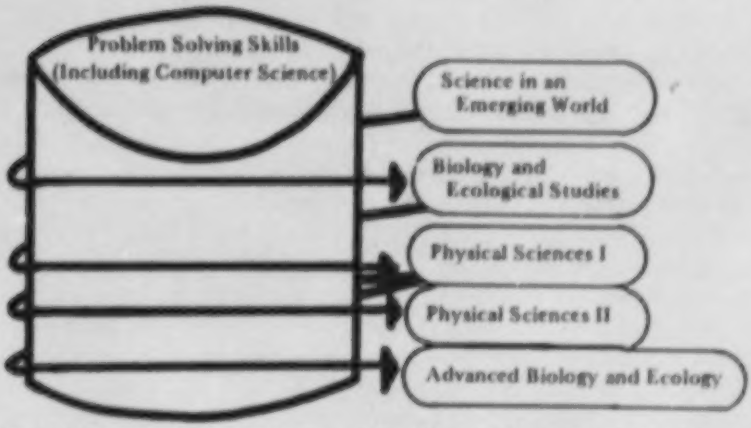

Problem Solving Skills
(Including Computer Science)
Science in an Emerging World
Biology and Ecological Studies
Physical Sciences I
Physical Sciences II
Advanced Biology and Ecology

Figure 2. One Model for the Secondary Science Curriculum

global problems such as energy, food production, disease, weather, population, and the balance of power.

The second course, Biology and Ecological Studies, would continue this study into the area of plant and animal sciences with an emphasis on the interrelationships existing between living things. Additional study would focus on various life cycles and ecosystems and the modifications of these phenomena with time and outside interferences. This portion of the course could employ the computer in simulating long term results immediately. Such simulations might focus on population and nutrition, disease and epidemiology, air or water pollution, plant or animal management, genetic engineering, or some area of medicine.

The third year course, Physical Science I, should serve as a strong introduction to the basic concepts of chemistry and physics, focusing on their occurrence in industry and other applied settings. Further, this study should work to integrate the content to highlight the historical interplay between chemistry and physics in an attempt to understand physical phenomena. As in the foregoing biological science course, the study of chemistry and physics concepts should include relevant applications and simulations in such areas as energy (solar and nuclear), agricultural applications, and engineering. These applications should be tied into other classwork whenever possible to show the relationship existing between science and global problems.

Following the completion of the above three-year core of the secondary science curriculum, the student should possess minimal entrance-level skills for university-level science courses. However, any student considering additional university level study of science would need to take a fourth year of secondary science in his major area of interest. To meet this need, the Language and International Studies School should offer two year-long elective courses in science, Physical Sciences II and Advanced Biology and Ecology, for such students.

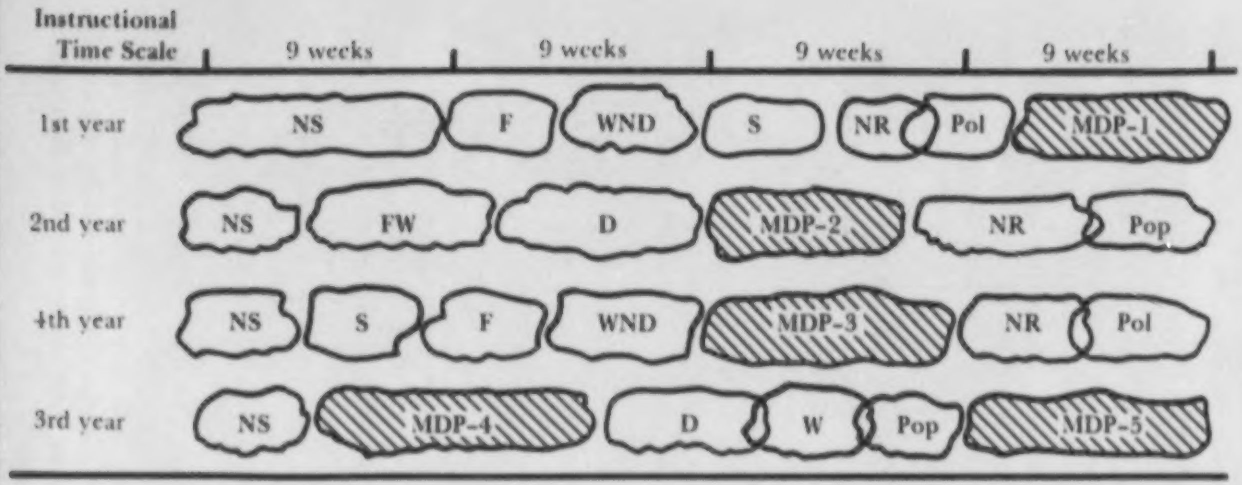
The first of these courses, Physical Sciences II, would provide the completion of the traditional two-year track in chemistry and physics. The second course, Advanced Biology and Ecology, would provide an extension of the earlier Biology and Ecological Studies course. Such a program would provide the student of the Language and International Studies School with a solid background in either the physical or biological sciences. It would also provide a strong base for the development of expertise in other areas of science. While on the surface this program appears traditional, much curriculum development work needs to be done to bring the model presented into accord with the themes of practical application and global impact.

The Topical Model

A second model for the science curriculum is developed within the context of a module organization and places strong emphasis on global survival problems. The flexible scheduling and topical approach allows for its use in a variety of settings.

In addition, the four-year curriculum includes five different Multi-Disciplinary Problem periods in each of which students and teachers would be involved in intensive study of broad problem area.

As the conclusion of this alternative for the science curriculum, students would have more experience in the life sciences and less in physics and chemistry than they would have under the first alternative. However, the concepts of physics and chemistry studies under this option would be more closely related to their applica-



Themes
(Survival Problems)

Nature of Science (NS)
Food and Water (FW)
Shelter (S)
Fuel (F)
Disease (D)
Weather and Natural Disasters (WND)
Multi-disciplinary Problems (MDP-mid)
War (W)
Nautral Resources (NR)
Pollution (Pol)
Population (Pop)
Multi-disciplinary Problems (MDP-end)

Figure 3. Modular Flow Chart for Man in Nature—A Science Program with a World View

tions in the everyday world. Their global importance would also be highlighted by this approach.

Model III

A third conceptualization of the science curriculum is organized around the continuum shown in Figure 4. It attempts to place a number of curriculum components into some perspective relative to one another. As various biological and physical phenomena are studied, the associated concepts and conceptual schemes are analyzed in relation to where they most appropriately fit on the continuum.

Though it is not intended that this continuum outline a specific chronology of course topics, one possible sequence might be as follows:

The first year could be devoted to the study of the cosmos and the earth in general. This study would focus on methods of scientific investigation and the structure of the universe and the earth. It would include many of the concepts of introductory astronomy and geology. In addition, the narrowing to the earth could start the consideration of ecosystems and physical interactions. The discussion of these two topics might constitute the bulk of the second year of study under this model.

The study of physical interactions would draw heavily on the content of the physical sciences while the study of ecosystems would draw on the topics of ecology. Particular emphasis would be given to the effects of changes in the physical relationships between elements or forces and the resulting impact on the cosmos-individual chain shown in Figure 3. Like analyses would also be

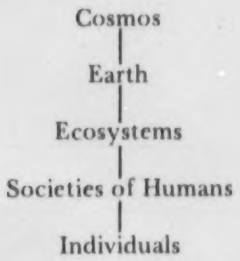


Figure 4. A Third Model for Secondary School Science

made concerning the effects of changes in the various ecosystems considered. Particular attention should be given to the impact which man's decisions have on all of the components of the continuum.

The third and fourth years of the science curriculum might then deal with the topics of man and societies of man. This study would draw on the traditional areas of biology and the uses of science in the environment by humans. These uses could focus on many of the same topics, or themes, listed in the second model for the curriculum.

This model for the curriculum, like the second model, allows for a greater study of global issues and provides more opportunities for flexibility and modular scheduling. In fact, it could be incorporated into Model II. However, it also would require an extensive development of curriculum materials.

One must insure that students are provided a solid background in the sciences and the applications of the sciences to the solution of, and the development of alternative approaches to, global problems. In addition, the approach should provide students with the minimal entry requirements for university-level science courses. This model should not be seen as a "watering down" of science.

The Problem Solving Skills Model

As students consider the concepts of mathematics and science, they need to develop a wide range of problem solving skills and tools (including the ability to raise meaningful and reasonable questions). This portion of the Language International Studies School curriculum is designed to help the students develop critical thinking strategies and to develop specific skills for the application of these strategies to a wide variety of problem situations, both within and outside mathematics and the sciences. This portion of the curriculum should be considered integral to all areas of the Language International Studies School's activities.

Some of the basic problem-solving strategies which this stalk should contain are the following: looking for patterns, asking the right questions, identifying crucial problems, constructing tables, listing all possibilities, simulating situations, constructing models, guessing and checking, and drawing diagrams. There are many additional strategies and techniques for attacking problems. These, as well as others, should be explicitly taught to students so that they understand how to attack problem situations. Materials for this task are currently available in a variety of sources.

A second phase of the strand would be the development of computer literacy and the ability to function in at least one programming language. This study should involve the evolution of computing, the nature and function of the various items of hardware, the nature and uses of programming languages, and the impact of the computer on society.

The development of competence in one language, probably BASIC, should involve the student in the writing of programs to carry out elementary calculations and algorithmic procedures in mathematics and science, as well as other areas of the curriculum. In addition, the study should enable the student to examine a written program and modify it minimally to carry out a desired function stated by the student or teacher.

IMPLICATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

The foregoing suggestions have several implications for the nature of the total Language and International Studies School curriculum, the selection of students, the selection and education of its teachers, and the organization of such schools.

For students, the proposed curriculum will require that they integrate their knowledge from several areas in both the science and mathematics curricula, which integration must be viewed as serious. More time will be spent on the development of problem solving and application processes and less time on the development of rote algorithmic procedures. Students will be expected to take charge of a greater portion of their learning. Thus, the selection procedures, or at least the retention procedures, for the Language and International Studies Schools should take this factor into account.

At the same time, the curricula will place a greater load on the teacher. These individuals will have to be selected on their ability to develop and teach the various application and multi-disciplinary topics outlined. This will require the recruitment of teachers having experiences beyond those normally found in standard teacher education programs. It will require teachers with "real world" experience in areas of mathematics and the sciences. Ideally, such teachers will have had international experience in their discipline and speak at least one language fluently in their subject matter area.

The consideration of these requirements leads to the appearance of a call for a modern day renaissance man or woman. It may be the case that these teachers will have to be developed on the job through carefully thought out in-service education programs and related summer internship experiences with interested international corporations who support the Language and International Studies School concept.

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ISSUES IN CURRICULUM: SOCIAL SCIENCES

Coleaders: Lee Anderson
Lawrence E. Metcalf

Reporter: Lee Anderson

Panelists: Joseph Casagrande
Paul Cole
Ben Cox
Ralph Fisher
Arthur Getis
J. Terry Iversen
Judy Jones
Wilma J. Lund
Richard Merritt
Dennis Tafoya
Joanne Wheeler

Social studies instruction in Language and International Studies Schools, in order to further the distinctive mission of such schools, should evidence several characteristics. For easy discussion, these characteristics can be grouped into four categories. One is the basic objectives that the curriculum should be designed to serve. A second is its general substantive focus. A third is its dominating mode of instruction. And the fourth is the curriculum's organizational architecture as embodied in what is commonly called scope and sequence.

OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Social studies education in Language and International Studies Schools should be explicitly and self-consciously shaped to advance one paramount purpose shared by all curriculum areas within such schools. Simply stated, this purpose is the development within students of the competencies necessary for them to effectively participate as Americans in an international environment. Five such competencies are particularly relevant in designing social studies curriculum. These can be characterized as follows:

1. Competence in perceiving one's personal and collective involvement in the world system
2. Competence in making decisions
3. Competence in reaching judgments
4. Competence in exercising influence
5. Competence in cross-cultural communication.

A brief comment on each of these competencies may be useful.

Competence in Perceiving One's Involvement in the World System

Each of us as individuals and Americans is involved in the world system in a variety of complex ways. We are involved biologically, ecologically, socioculturally, historically, and psychologically.

Biologically, we are involved in the world system because we are members of a single, common species of life and hence we share with all humanity many commonalities. Ecologically, we are involved because we are a part of the earth's biosphere and hence inescapably linked to our planet's material and energetic structure. Culturally, we are involved in the world system because we are enmeshed in the human-created environment we call culture, and in the modern world human culture has become a global environment. The technologies, the institutions, the languages, and the beliefs that make up human culture link us, our communities, and our nation to people, communities, and nations elsewhere in the world. Through these cultural linkages, we influence the lives of people elsewhere in the world and they, in turn, influence our lives. Historically, we are involved in the world system because of the culture that surrounds us is an amalgamation of technologies, languages, beliefs, and institutions initially created by members of our species who lived elsewhere in both space and time, and conversely, much of the culture surrounding others is of our creation. Psychologically, we are involved in the world by virtue of the fact that the world external to our nation is an object of our perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs; and reciprocally, we are the object of the perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of others.

To develop students' competence in perceiving their involvement in the world system is to enhance this awareness, self-consciousness, and cognitive understanding of these various dimensions of their personal and collective involvement. In designing social studies curricula, we can usefully think of this competence, like the other competencies discussed below, as a complex, multidimensional compound of certain perceptual, emotional, and social *capacities*. In turn, these general capacities can be broken down into more specific *abilities* which can for the most part be directly taught. In the appendix to this paper, we display in chart form the particular capacities and specific abilities that appear to be implied by each of the five competencies of particular relevance to social studies instruction in Language and International Studies Schools.

Competence in Making Decisions

Each of us is a decision maker in the sense that as individuals we constantly confront the task of making choices from many alternative courses of action. Each of us is also a decision maker in the sense that we participate in the process of collective or social decision making. This is to say, we are involved in the processes through which the various groups we belong to make decisions. For convenience sake, we may label these two aspects of experience our "decision making life."

It is becoming increasingly evident that the growing globalization of the human condition is affecting our decision making life in two significant ways. One, the impingement of the external world on our lives is creating new conditions to which we, as individuals and as members of different groups, must adapt. This process of adaptation requires decisions.

Two, the decisions we made as individuals, as well as the collective decisions made by the groups to which we belong, increasingly affect the well-being of both the ninety-four percent of humanity that lives beyond the territorial boundaries of the United States in addition to the well-being of yet-to-be-born generations. In a word, the boundaries of our decision making life are expanding both spacially and temporally. Matters that were once issues about which we could make decisions with an eye only to their immediate or short term consequences for ourselves, or our local communities, or our nation are becoming matters about which our decisions have consequences that reach well beyond the boundaries of our personal lives, our communities, and our nation and well into the future. In short, we live in a time when our decision making life, and even more importantly, the decision making life of students now in our schools, is becoming complicated by the dual need to simultaneously adapt to new conditions and to accommodate the fact that an increasing number of both personal and collective decisions have transnational and transgenerational consequences. The development of students' competence to make decisions that clearly reflect these realities should be a second major objective of social studies instruction in Language and International Studies Schools. In the appendix, we have tried to particularize decision-making competence in terms of its constituent capacities and abilities.

Competence in Reaching Judgments

As citizens, consumers, workers, and participants in religious organizations, labor unions, business firms, etc., each of us makes a myriad of judgments about world affairs. As in the case of perceiving our involvement in the world system and of making decisions our judgment making can be more or less competent. Developing the capacities and abilities that make up judgment making competence should be a third major objective of the social studies curriculum in Language and International Studies Schools. These capacities and abilities are outlined in the appendix.

Competence in Exercising Influence

What does it mean to exert influence on the international environment? How does or can the "ordinary citizen" exercise any influence over world affairs? To some these may appear to be meaningless, silly, or useless questions. Is not the world system so vast and complex as to preclude any meaningful exercise of influence on the part of people who are not heads of state or foreign ministers or executives in the world's large multinational corporations? Indeed, is not the system beyond the control of even the world's most powerful political and economic elites? Is the cluster of inter-related world problems—population growth, resource depletion, environment overload, violence, social injustice—susceptible at all to human intervention? These and many other questions like them are good and hard questions that demand careful thought in any serious analysis of citizenship in a global era. It may be that enhanced competence in exerting influence is an unattainable end. But we prefer to think not. To the contrary, we believe that the enhancement of the competence of the citizenry to exercise a greater degree of control or influence over the institutions, processes, and problems that affect their lives and shape the quality of life enjoyed by their children and grandchildren is both an attainable and an important objective of social studies in Language and International Studies School. On this article of faith let us return to the query—what does it mean to exercise influence on the international environment?

At a minimum this competence would appear to imply two things, both of which are suggested by the previous discussions of competence in making decisions and reaching judgments. First, competence in exercising influence implies some degree of self-conscious deliberate control over the social and psychological *consequences* for self of "forces" that one cannot control. Any one of us may not be able to exercise any immediate control over escalating energy costs, but we can adapt to this reality in more rather than less creative and constructive ways. This is to say, there are things we can do to make expensive energy less painful to us. Similarly, there may be nothing any one citizen can immediately do about inflation, but there are things he or she can do to minimize the level of psychological and inter-personal stress generated by reduced purchasing power.

Second, competence in exerting influence implies a reduction in the number of unintended and undesired consequences that flow from one's personal choices and from the decisions made by the groups to which one belongs. If it is true, as the previous analysis argues, that each of us is enmeshed in a global network in which our actions and choices do, in fact, have an impact on the lives of others, then to the extent we succeed in making decisions which have a minimum number of unintended and undesired consequences, we are exerting influence.

These then are two minimal meanings of the notion of competence in exerting influence. Competence includes adapting to the realities over which one has no immediate control in ways that minimize their negative consequences for self, and it means making decisions that minimize the number of unintended and undesired consequences for others. Thus to the degree education succeeds in enhancing the decision making and judgment making competence of individuals, it also enhances their competence in exerting influence.

Beyond this minimal sense of competence, what does it mean to exercise influence on the international environment? At its most simple but basic level, it means that an individual develops goals in respect to some situation, issue, or problem and then takes action intended to further these goals.

Let's look at an example of a family (the Jones family, of course) whose members are involved in efforts to exert influence on their international environment. On Tuesday, the family buys a car. They decide to purchase a compact, which is a much smaller and less elegant car than they would personally like to have. They did so on the grounds that the bit of additional space, comfort, and speed they would ideally like to have in a car are less important values to them than a contribution to energy conservation. On Wednesday, Mrs. Jones, who is an agronomist, decides to leave her present position to take a job with a firm that is working in research on substitutes for toxic fertilizers. On Saturday, the Jones' teenage children spend the day in a church sponsored "hunger march." On the following Monday, Mr. Jones sends a small check to Amnesty International along with a letter endorsing the organization's efforts to pressure a national government into staying the execution of twenty political prisoners. On the same day, the neighbor's child tells one of the Jones' teenagers that he had seen her in a march on Saturday and inquired about what she was doing. She explained to the child that there are many people in the world who do not have enough to eat and the people who were marching were raising money to buy food for them.

Each of these events in the life of the Jones family are examples of individuals engaged in efforts to exert influence in the context of global society. The examples point to five ways or modes of influence potentially open to individuals. Within their international environment, individuals can endeavor to exert influence:

1. through life style decisions,
2. through occupational or professional activities,
3. through social action,
4. through political activity, and
5. through modelling and other kinds of education.

The identification of these alternative modes of influence that are potentially available to individuals as they confront their international environment point to a number of capacities and abilities that schools and particular social studies classes can develop within students. These are detailed in the appendix.

Competence in Cross-Cultural Communication

The most apparent manifestation of our global consciousness (or the lack of it) is our communication behavior. In this matter, we have no choices; by necessity, we are communicators, and by nature, our communication efforts reveal our attitudes. As we form and project messages about our convictions and our feeling-states, and as we receive and respond to messages of others, the essence of our existence is the act of communicating. In our private and corporate "decision making life," testing, refining, and defending the judgments we have methodically evolved, and in exercising influence as individuals and groups in fashioning a better world, both proximate and distant, we and our ideas are severely handicapped or, worse still, reduced to nothingness, if we cannot capably function as speakers/listeners and writers/readers.

Even if we could live out our entire lives within the social confines of our native culture (which will become less and less feasible as global affairs relentlessly impinge on our lives), we might not always be satisfied with our ability to relate productively to those around us, particularly in spoken communication, the most dominant mode. Living from day to day among the binding elements of our shared cultures, our task is to recognize and adapt to the proclivities and idiosyncrasies of our families, friends, and associates. Basically similar to these people, we recognize that the differences among us—those qualities that mark us and set us apart one from the other—are rooted in our individualities. The significance of our separateness fades as we contemplate the overarching force of our cultures which establishes and fosters sturdy collective cohesion, and proceed rather confidently in our communication behavior.

As distinctive features of contrasting cultures are perceived in the communication behavior of people whose lives intersect with ours, the comfortable security afforded by customary ways and community norms pales as it becomes a much less reassuring factor. Distinguishing, sometimes clashing, attributes primarily anchored in the make-up of individuals present one level of communication challenge; the challenge is compounded when people who have different cultural moorings try to communicate across boundaries imposed by disparate cultures. As evidence of dissonance intensifies, chasms between cultures widen; effective communication, sought after and prized, becomes all the more elusive.

A principal index to a culture is its language; to have command of a culture's language will provide not only entrance into the culture, but also the means for acquiring a fuller comprehension of the culture. Nevertheless, common language facility, within itself, does not assure easy communication, in the most realistic meaning of the term. Geographically, socially, and economically separated, people who can converse with each other may walk in culturally divergent paths, and cannot truly communicate. While vocabulary, syntax, and lingual constructs are integral to our efforts, the productive speaking/listening and writing/reading acts involve other components even more critical, perhaps, than language itself, if the total configuration of communication is to be understood.

One fundamental dimension of instruction in social studies, therefore, concerns itself with the study of cross-cultural communication patterns. Competence in cross-cultural communication depends on the student's insight into juxtaposed value systems, thought frames and processes, confirmed customs and preferences. The composite force of heritage, religious faith, taboos, laws, and operating axioms must be appreciated if the cultural contexts in which people find their reasons for being are to be interpreted knowingly. Above all, the student must be alert to the *impact* of these identified facets of culture on communication behavior.

In our global community, charted to become increasingly more compact, cultural isolation is neither desirable nor practical. Emerging conditions throughout our world mandate serious attention be given in our education programs to the ultimate test of cooperative living within a multicultural mix, the ability to communicate, to deal with knowledge, ideals, priorities, and problems not only as people interact, but as *people within cultures* interact.

Our culture has so molded us that we could never completely disassociate ourselves from its effects, even if we desired to. Grounded in our own culture, we must cultivate our ability to be more sensitive to people outside our usual orbit who are what they are because of the teachings and directives of their cultures. If we are to achieve the most meaningful involvement possible in the global scene in which we inextricably live, we must develop competency in monitoring our communication behavior as we try to adapt to people who are understandably proud of their contrasting cultural identities.

Summary

In this section we have tried to characterize the type of social studies curriculum appropriate to language and international studies schools in terms of the basic objectives the curriculum should be designed to serve. We have said that social studies should serve five fundamental objectives. These are the development within students of:

1. A competence in perceiving their own personal and collective involvement in the world system
2. A competence in making decisions within the context of an international environment
3. A competence in making judgments about world affairs
4. A competence in exercising influence over the international environment
5. A competence in communicating within cross-cultural contexts.

We have noted that each of these competencies is a complex blend of certain general capacities which in turn are composed of several specific teachable abilities. In the Appendix to this paper we delineate what we see to be the major capacities and abilities associated with each of the five competencies we believe should be developed by social studies instruction in Language and International Studies Schools.

SUBSTANTIVE FOCUS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

In the last section we characterized the social studies curriculum appropriate to Language and International Studies Schools in terms of basic objectives. Now we turn our attention to the curriculum's substantive focus. Here the question of concern to us can be put this way: What should be the basic subject matter of social studies instruction in these schools?

Social studies in Language and International Studies Schools should explicitly and directly focus on the study of three generic phenomena. These are:

1. The human species
2. Planet earth
3. The global social system.

We shall briefly discuss each of these three foci of social studies.

The Study of the Human Species

A social studies curriculum appropriate to Language and International Studies Schools must above all else be a humankind centered curriculum. This is to say that the social studies curriculum in such schools should explicitly focus upon the human species as the basic unit of study in contrast to particular nations, cultural areas or civilizations. To develop such curriculum is critical. To believe, as we have done in the past, that by adding to the extant curriculum a bit more study about foreign areas or other cultures, schools can adequately prepare students for citizenship and work in a global age is nonsense. And it is nonsense not because the curriculum is already overcrowded with more things than any decent teacher can teach or any decent student can learn. This is true, but even if the curriculum were an infinitely expandable container into which we could pour an unlimited number of new units on Africa, China, Latin America, Ancient Rome, Canada, Japan, Paris, the Bushman, the Eskimos, the Indians, the new and old cities of Europe, etc., etc., etc., this approach would still be nonsensical. As the former ambassador to Japan, Edwin Reischauer correctly observes; "The net result might be simply to impress the child with the idea that others do things differently, which in his perception, as encouraged by his home and local environment, is likely to mean the wrong way" (1974). Reischauer goes on to also correctly note:

> A more basic reform in education will be necessary. This I believe should be a conscious effort to get away from the

> assumed, even if unspecified, unit of our own nation and its culture as the most exclusive focus of education. To put it in more positive terms, we should broaden the focus to include all humanity and the whole of the human experience. Basically what is needed is a profound change in the underlying assumptions of curriculum planners, the textbook writers, and teachers. Change in the specific content of education would automatically follow, and students would find no difficulty in adjusting in turn. If they can understand the great abstraction of the nation, they can certainly understand humanity too, for it is a much less arbitrary unit.

What are the essential elements of a social studies curriculum whose focus is "all of humanity and the whole of the human experience?" It is a curriculum structured around a progressively more sophisticated study of a few fundamental topics. At a minimum these include:

1. The comparative study of the human species and other forms of life
2. The study of culture as a pan-human phenomenon
3. The study of diversity in human culture
4. The study of change in human culture
5. The study of major historical events and trends in the biological evolution and cultural development of the human species
6. The study of humankind's possible and alternative futures.

The Study of Planet Earth

A second substantive focus of a social studies curriculum appropriate to Language and International Studies Schools should be a study of the geography and ecology of the planet as a whole. The basic elements of a planet-centered social studies curriculum, like the basic elements of a humankind-centered curriculum, are simple but basic. They include:

1. The study of the earth as humankind's cosmic home
2. The study of the earth's atmospheric resources
3. The study of the earth's hydrospheric resources
4. The study of the earth's land resources

5. The study of earth's mineral and energy resources
6. The study of the earth's plant and animal resources.

The Study of the Global Social System

The social studies curriculum found in most schools portrays the world as if it is a collection of distinct, separate and only marginally related nations, cultural areas, and geographic regions. But in reality the contemporary world constitutes a singular, albeit complex, social system. This is a critical fact in the design of social studies curricula for Language and International Studies Schools for the curriculum in such schools should clearly foster the growth of a comprehension of the global social system as a whole. Robert Harper has made this point very well in writing the type of geography education appropriate to a global age and his point applies with equal force to all facets of the social studies curriculum in Language and International Studies Schools. He observes:

> ...The whole world is more important than its parts. It is understanding of the world-wide system of humanity living on the earth that we want the student to grasp, not just an understanding of the parts—the regions that have been the center of the geographer's attention. The important thing is to see how they fit into the larger world system.
>
> This calls for a whole new approach in geography. No longer can we study the United States just in terms of learning its own characteristics and of comparing those characteristics with those of other parts of the...world with the aim of seeing similarities and differences. We must now see the United States as part of the world-wide system of ideas, goods and peoples.
>
> Of course, to understand the world as a whole, we must scrutinize the parts, but the aim is always to see the part in the context of the bigger whole (1966).

The essential elements of a social studies curriculum focused upon the global social system are simple and few in number. The most basic include:

1. The study of the social institutions, processes, and problems that interlink the world's nations and regions

2. The study of the historical development of world's global economy, political system, culture, and systems of transport and communication
3. The study of the ways and consequences particular localities, nations, and regions are involved in the global system.

Summary

In this section we have tried to characterize a social studies curriculum appropriate to Language and International Studies Schools in terms of substantive focus. We have said that in such schools social studies should engage students in a progressively more sophisticated study of:

1. The human species
2. Planet earth
3. The global social system.

We have noted that in respect to each of these three substantive foci, the essential elements of a basic curriculum are simple and few in number. It should also be noted that a social studies curriculum with these three primary substantive foci inherently must be a multidisciplinary curriculum with specific content drawn from a variety of social science disciplines including history, geography, economics, political science, sociology, demography, anthropology, and ecology.

MODES OF INSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

So far we have tried to characterize the social studies curriculum appropriate to Language and International Studies Schools in terms of basic objectives and basic substantive foci. We now turn to a third matter. This is the mode of instruction that ought to prevail in social studies classes.

Here too, just as in the case of objectives and substantive foci, we believe social studies education in Language and International Studies Schools should be noticeably different from that which prevails in most schools. It appears neither inaccurate nor unfair to observe that prevailing modes of social studies instruction do the following:

1. Students are cast into passive and minor roles in the drama of their own education
2. The world beyond the narrow boundaries of student's personal experience is portrayed to be remote, removed, and personally irrelevant
3. The world that students personally experience is rendered to be trivial and non-problematic
4. The social studies classroom and the larger local, national, and international community are mutually segregated and isolated one from another.

None of these prevailing characteristics of social studies instructions are appropriate to Language and International Studies Schools. To the contrary, social studies in instruction in these schools must utilize modes of instruction that:

1. Give to students a major and active role in shaping their own learning
2. Transform the geographically removed, the historically distant, and the culturally foreign into matters that spark curiosity, stimulate interest, and generate personal concern
3. Illuminate linkages and parallels between the personal experiences of students and the larger, more remote world lying beyond the realm of immediate, first hand experience
4. Utilize teaching and learning resources beyond the boundaries of the school.

This mandate calls for several specific actions. First, within social studies classrooms extensive but skillful use needs to be made of case studies, simulations, role playing exercises and other similar means of instruction that involve students in active, participatory and personalized modes of learning.

Second, social studies education should seek to move students outside of schools and into a variety of field experiences both within their own community and whenever possible in other nations. These can include internships with local business firms involved in international business, religious and humanitarian groups engaged in international activities, foreign affairs councils, and other such associations. Also included in such field experiences would be opportunities to live, work, and study within cultural settings different from the student's home culture. This would encompass experiences within sub-cultures within the students' own community and nation as well as overseas experience.

Third, social studies instruction should fully utilize available community resources such as foreign students, university and college personnel with foreign experience and instructional expertise, visiting or resident governmental authorities, representatives of international and labor organizations, individuals from local information and service organizations, and other comparable community resources.

Fourth, appropriate instructional materials produced in other nations should be frequently used. For example, when studying the United States, students should have the opportunity to study materials about the United States produced in other nations. The use of "foreign produced" materials whether in the form of books, newspapers, journals, documents, etc. are particularly important as well as feasible in social studies classes taught in languages other than English and would help serve to integrate foreign language and social studies instruction.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

We now turn to the issue of how social studies instruction in Language and International Studies Schools should be organized and sequenced. To begin with we are convinced that social studies is of sufficient importance to the overall educational mission of Language and International Studies Schools to warrent three years of study in three year high schools and four years of study in four year schools.

How should these three or four years be organized and sequenced? We do not believe that the lessons of experience, common sense, or educational research point to any one clearly superior pattern of organizing and sequencing the social studies curriculum in Language and International Studies Schools. In the absence of one single, demonstrably superior pattern, we encourage self-conscious experimentation with three alternative options.

One option would be comprised of a single prescribed set of three or four courses (depending on school) that all students would take. These courses should be explicitly focused upon the multidisciplinary study of world history and world geography. Legally required social studies content in such areas as U.S. history and government should be incorporated into this framework. Within this overall framework alternative organizational schemes could be employed. For example, there could be two years of world history and two years of world geography. The former in turn could be organized chronologically for the two years or alternatively one year of study could be structured chronologically and/or thematically and the other year could be structured regionally and include within it the study of American history. Similarly, with world geography, one year could be focused thematically and the other year regionally.

The second option we recommend is a modification of the first. This pattern would be comprised of two years of required study in world geography and world history followed by one or two years of elective study. In the latter students would be allowed to select from a range of relatively short and specialized courses (e.g., nine weeks). The content of these elective courses would be drawn from the several social science disciplines and/or focus upon multidisciplinary themes.

The third option we recommend is an extension of the second. In this option there would be no single required sequence of courses. Rather the social studies curriculum would be comprised of a reasonably large number of short elective courses. Students in consultation with their advisers would put together a four or three year program from these elective courses, a program that presumably would be tailored to match students' particular intellectual interests, future plans, etc. The one restriction would be legally mandated social studies content. This content would be embodied in some of the short courses and students would be required to take the necessary number of such courses.

As noted previously, we believe that language and international studies schools should self-consciously experiment with these three alternative patterns of organizing and sequencing the social studies curriculum. If careful evaluation, including ethnographic evaluation, were conducted of the experience of different schools using the different options, it might then be possible to make grounded jugments about the relative merits of alternative scope and sequence arrangements.

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APPENDIX

Table 1.
Competence in Perceiving One's Involvement in the World System

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
1. perceive oneself and all other individuals as members of a single species of life–a species whose members share: –a common biological status; –a common way of adapting to the natural environment; –a common set of biological and psychological needs; –common existential concerns; and –common social problems...	a) identify human beings as living things with characteristics which distinguish living from non-living systems; b) locate the human species in a taxonomy of life; c) compare the human species with other life forms and identify points of similarity and difference; d) recognize that all humans create culture; perceive culture as our species' peculiar way of adapting to its environment (this also involves being able to identify those elements of culture which are universal, despite different geographical or historical settings); e) identify major historical events and trends that have shaped the global development of human culture; f) identify similarities and parallels in the historical experience of different groups and societies; g) identify certain common problems in different cultural settings; h) recognize that people culturally different from oneself have needs, behaviors, concerns, and life experiences similar to one's own;

Table 1, cont.

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
	i) identify in one's own life needs, behaviors, concerns, and experiences common to all humanity.
2. perceives self and all humans as a part of the earth's biosphere...	a) conceive of the natural environment as a single, integrated global system; b) perceive that the satisfaction of human needs (psychological as well as biological) depends directly or indirectly upon the natural resources in the earth's biosphere; c) think of oneself as only one consumer of resources and to recognize that these resources come from geographically different parts of the biosphere; d) comprehend that the supply of many of the world's most critical natural resources is finite; e) understand that the activities of all humans, individually and collectively, affect the earth's biosphere; f) see that different lifestyles have different impacts on natural systems; g) perceive that there are alternative ways of acting out human/environment relations and that these alternatives have differing effects on environmental health.
3. see how each person, and the groups to which that person belongs, are participants in the world's socio-cultural system...	a) identify in one's own life space the technologies, institutions, languages, and beliefs which link one to people on other parts of the world; b) identify ways in which one's own community or region are involved in transnational flows of goods, services, information, money, and people; c) identify the interdependent networks (economic, social, mili-

Table 1, cont.

Requires the capacity *to. . .*	*which involves the* ability *to. . .*
	tary, ecological, and technological) which link the United States and other nations; d) conceive of a world system made up of many different entities such as international organizations (public and private), multinational corporations, as well as national governments and subnational organizations; e) perceive that most groups and organizations to which one belongs (e.g., churches, business firms, banks, youth groups) are involved in a variety of international activities, with consequences both for Americans and people in other countries.
4. perceive that people at all levels of social organization–from the individual to the whole society–are both "cultural borrowers" and "cultural depositors"; they both draw from and contribute to a "global bank of human culture" that has been and continues to be fed by contributions from all peoples, in all geographical regions, and in all periods of history...	a) conceptualize cultures as a human creation varying among particular groups and societies, but serving universal objectives; b) trace the historical and geographical origins of –the technologies –the languages –the institutions –the beliefs that are important to oneself or one's community or nation; c) identify contributions (technologies, beliefs, institutions, languages) made by one's own community, nation, religion, or ethnic group to the "global bank of human culture."
5. perceive that people have differing perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes about the world system and its components...	a) identify and describe one's own opinions, attitudes, beliefs, etc., about such questions as war and peace, inequalities in the distribution of the world's wealth, and other societies;

Table 1, cont.

Requires the **capacity** *to. . .*	*which involves the* **ability** *to. . .*
	b) identify the sources of one's own orientation toward the world; c) reflect on the possible consequences for one's self and others if one had different world views; d) recognize that others may view one's own nation or culture from another perspective; e) identify possible sources of the views others have of us.

Table 2.
Competence in Making Decisions

Requires the **capacity** *to...*	*which involves the* **ability** *to...*
1. make "creative personal decisions regarding one's own lifestyles, in adjusting to "imposed and uncontrollable" changes...	a) recognize intellectually and emotionally the need for changes in lifestyles; b) identify and/or create alternative lifestyle possibilities; c) identify one's basic values and long-term interests; d) evaluate alternative lifestyles in terms of one's basic values and interests; e) become committed to specific changes in lifestyle which best meet one's own values and needs.
2. perceive and identify the transnational consequences of one's personal decisions and of the collective decisions of the groups to which one belongs...	a) perceive that personal and collective decisions made by Americans have consequences for other parts of the world; b) discriminate among decisions and identify those with transnational consequences; c) identify the specific consequences of such kinds of decisions.
3. "take into consideration" the interests of others when making	a) empathize with others and to recognize their needs, feelings,

Table 2, cont.

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
decisions with transnational consequences...	and interests; b) hold others' interests to be as legitimate and valuable as one's own interests.
4. perceive and identify long term consequences of individual and collective decisions...	a) perceive that actions have consequences over time and can --ramify --accumulate or aggregate; b) perceive that actions can have consequences difficult to identify or predict, especially over the long term.
5. "take into active consideration" the interests of future generations when making personal and collective decisions...	a) identify basic needs and interests of future generations; b) identify emotionally with the yet unborn; c) hold the interests of future generations to be as legitimate and as valuable as one's own interests.

Table 3.

Competence in Reaching Judgments

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
1. perceive the choices confronting individuals, communities, nations, and the human species, with respect to major world problems...	a) identify choices and alternative actions in respect to problems of managing: --cultural diversity --conflict and violence --cultural change --human/biosphere relations --population growth.
2. acquire and process information analytically and to use reflective moral reasoning when making judgments about world problems...	a) use standard references--maps, graphs, charts, documents, etc.--as sources of information; b) acquire information from direct observation and interviewing (in real or simulated settings);

Table 3, cont.

Requires the **capacity** *to. . .*	*which involves the* **ability** *to. . .*
	c) make systematic comparisons; make and judge logical inferences; create and test hypotheses; categorize, classify, and conceptualize; d) justify a specific value judgment by reference to a more general value: e) relate general values to specific situations.
3. identify, describe, and analyze one's own judgments about world problems...	a) articulate one's empirical, moral, and prescriptive beliefs; b) perceive one's beliefs as choices among alternative beliefs; c) identify alternative beliefs; d) compare the empirical and ethical assumptions underlying different beliefs.
4. perceive that human experience, earlier and elsewhere, may possibly be more useful for dealing with contemporary problems than beliefs dominant today...	a) perceive one's own and other societies within a frame of reference relatively free of ethnocentric bias; b) develop "progressively deeper levels of cross-cultural awareness"; c) engage in cross-societal and cross-cultural communications to learn about world problems; d) "use" the "traditional wisdom of humankind"—religion, literature, myths, and the visual arts—as a source for new insights, perceptions, and modes of thinking about contemporary problems.
5. perceive the world system in a systematic manner...	a) identify interrelations among trends, changes, and problems in the world system; b) perceive that any given action or change can have —multiple consequences —different consequences for dif-

Table 3, cont.

Requires the capacity *to. . .*	*which involves the* ability *to. . .*
	ferent countries or for different groups within one country –different consequences for particular groups within one country –different consequences for particular human values, e.g., wealth, power, safety, health.
6. analyze, evaluate, and create models of alternative futures...	a) identify explicitly values one would like to see maximized in future world systems; b) identify alternative ways of organizing the world social system; c) portray these alternatives in scenarios, simulations, role-playing, exercises, short stories, models, etc.; d) evaluate the consequences, for different value structures, of alternative forms of world social organization.
7. analyze controversy surrounding an issue, problem or policy...	a) identify and distinguish disputes over definitions, value claims, and factual claims; b) analyze the relative "validity" of alternative factual claims and definitions of values; c) tolerate, intellectually and emotionally, conceptual, factual, and moral ambiguities.

Table 4.

Competence in Cross-Cultural Communication

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
1. understand that the degree of efficiency in personal communication behavior is dependent on more culture-related factors than language usage, *per se*...	a) characterize and assess one's communication behavior in terms of how thought processing is executed to reflect culturally approved reasoning modes;

Table 4, cont.

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
	b) review one's communication behavior in terms of how well it accommodates the receivers of messages within the limits of the culture's sanctioned standards.
2. recognize that people's communication behavior is shaped to a significant degree by identifiable forces within cultures...	a) understand how cultural tastes are rather automatically reflected in personal communication behavior; b) perceive how continuing customs and traditions orient the person's attitudes toward the communication task; c) perceive how cultural values restrict and endorse choices of subject matter content in projected messages.
3. appreciate that there is a latitude of personal choice-making in enhancing one's ability to send and receive messages communicatively so that cultural expectations are given due recognition...	a) identify those approaches available to a person to activate so that the sensitivities of culturally different people are not thoughtlessly offended; b) distinguish between what is involved in thoughtful, credible communication behavior and superficial pretense in intercultural communication; c) understand options in giving direction to one's communication behavior in explaining and supporting beliefs, so that presentation will correlate as much as possible with mind-sets essentially culturally based; d) compare and contrast how the culturally sensitive person proceeds in communication effort with how the culturally insensitive person proceeds.

Table 4, cont.

Requires the capacity *to...*	*which involves the* ability *to...*
4. implement considered choices in the planning of communication effort so that the optimal level of adaptation is realized in accommodating people whose cultural bases for functioning in communication interchanges feature contrasting beginning points and participating rationales...	a) effect the communication process so that as a sender and receiver of messages, the person is cognizant of both similarities and differences between her/him and co-participants re the very act of communication in its totality; b) be selective in choosing methods by which to implement patterns of thought, so that evolving messages do not become distorted because of the peculiarities of entrenched cultural orientations of co-participants as they function in communication episodes; c) exert conscious control over non-verbal factors, to the degree possible, so that they supplement verbal factors as well as they can, and correlate as unjarringly as possible with cultural norms, without the person's genuine self being unduly compromised; d) monitor one's personal presence in communication contexts so that culture-based expectations of co-participants will be violated minimally, if at all.

ISSUES IN CURRICULUM: PHYSICAL, VOCATIONAL, AND HOME ECONOMIC EDUCATION

Leader: Jacob Stern

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Effie H. Jones
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Cori Rizzo
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Physical education, vocational education, and home economics education play an important part in Language and International Studies Schools. The practical arts are to be found among all peoples throughout the world although their specific forms vary greatly from one setting to another. It is fact that through studies of, and appreciation for, these diverse forms we may all acquire a more profound understanding of ourselves and others and the relationships among us. Toward such an increased understanding, one may set forth a number of basic principles upon which appropriate curricular decisions relative to the Language and International Studies School may be made. These are presented below without consideration to priority or relative importance.

1. It is essential that efforts to implement Language and International Studies Schools be built upon a recognition of the true needs of the students who will be enrolled. A "motivational force field" must be generated which will effectively persuade students, parents, counsellors and others that international/intercultural studies are an essential element in contemporary general education.

2. The curriculum organization and design must clearly be "non-elitist." The underlying concepts involved are relevant to

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all youth and adults and that schemes which would effectively exclude significant groups from the opportunity to engage in such studies should be rejected.

3. The very nature in international/intercultural studies invites comparison, i.e., the practices found in one setting will be compared with practices found in another setting. Such comparisons may be made in games and play, in behavior in the work setting, and in practices related to family living. Such comparisons may result in a more enlightened, universalist outlook, but if instruction is improperly managed they may result in unwarranted judgmental behavior. Every effort should be made to avoid this form of ethno-centric behavior, firmly establishing instead a respect for the dignity and uniqueness of each of the cultural forms encountered in the instructional program.

4. The learning activities selected for the program should rely heavily on *direct* rather than vicarious experiences by the students. Wherever possible students should have an opportunity for "hands (and feet) on" experiences. While it is not the intention to diminish the importance of cognitive learning (through readings, discussion, or by whatever means), physical education, vocational education and home economics education have the unique capacity of recognizing the entire body as a channel or instrument for learning. Let the dominant principle be "...learn about other cultures and other people *by doing*, and if possible by doing things the way *they* do them."

5. It is essential that the concept of the language and international studies school be illuminated by an outlook of cultural reciprocity. This suggests that such studies will in effect be "two-way streets." Too often the tendency is for the focus to be on one or another of the cultures which are perceived as dominant. This reciprocity would be expressed in student and faculty exchanges (both student and faculty), and in parallel programs in other cultural settings.

6. The general curricular perspective should be on the self-actualized individual (child or adult) in a whole (not fragmented) world. In a sense that goal may well be toward effective world citizenship.

7. As we study the diverse cultural forms and settings which characterize *Homo sapiens*, it is deemed imperative that we not lose sight of the manner in which we interact with our environments. Students should explore these relationships and consider the consequences in the long and short term perspectives.

8. These aspects of schooling affirm the centrality of the home and the family as pivotal elements in every cultural setting. Therefore intercultural studies of nutrition, food preferences, preparation, storage, and consumption, inter-family relationships, design and maintenance of shelter and clothing, use and care of common household tools and equipment should constitute a core constituent in the curriculum.

a. In Health Education the following items should be included in a health curriculum from an international perspective: the health care systems of this and other countries as well as federal health legislation and health insurance, fitness concerns, sex education, nutrition, child care, pre-natal care, health of the elderly, health of the disabled, systems of birth and of death, family planning and mental health aspects of sex role socialization.

b. In Physical Education, while the obvious games and sports of other cultures would be taught, serious consideration ought also be given to the Olympics as an international movement and to the study of sociology of movement in other countries as well as the state of the art in biomechanics, sports medicine, and exercise physiology in other countries. Some study of the leisure services and the philosophy of leisure of various groups in other countries should be given serious consideration.

9. In view of the many different outlooks on the Language and International Studies School that make many different delivery systems possible, it would be desirable to conduct experiments with several of them. Some of these possibilities are "a total immersion" approach, "a special schools" approach, "a shared time" approach, and international content infused in all existing classes.

10. In planning for implementation of this concept it would be desirable to project several time frames. What goals or kind and degree of adoption would we want by 1990 or by 2000? Such short and longer term perspectives will enable planners to set and achieve realistic goals.

11. International and intercultural studies should adopt an employability perspective. How may we use what we have learned about other cultures which will help us to be better producers of goods and services? Are there practices in other cultural settings which have applicability to our circumstances through which we may realize the economics of time, natural resources, or capital? Finally, students exposed to such programs should gain a background that will enable them to consider career options in which international and intercultural factors are of paramount importance. It is quite likely that decreasingly national labor markets will be supplanted by international labor markets. This trend is already well established. It seems that studies such as those provided through a Language and International Studies High School may better prepare individuals to be effective members of such expanded labor markets.

While specific recommendations on curricula for the Language and International Studies School are not the province of this report, the foregoing principles may serve as a guide for further development of the concept. One may illustrate these principles through the specific example of home economics.

HOME ECONOMICS IN LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES SCHOOLS

The content of Home Economics is universal; hence, it is an important part of the curriculum of a high school that is international or global in character, a high school for an interdependent world. Students in such a school need home economics just as all students do. The content of home economics is universal because all people live in families, all are responsible in some measure for the next generation, all eat and benefit or suffer from their choices, all manage resources, consume, produce, live in some kind of housing, wear some kind of clothing, and relate to other people.

Home economics is that field of study and that profession which draws upon the physical, biological, and social sciences, and upon the arts for knowledge to serve families 1) as the nurturing social unit for individuals, and 2) as one force to help direct society (Spitze, 1979).

An "expert" home economist may not be able to sew, but she/he will understand some theory and principles about the psychological aspects of clothing (e.g., its effect on self-concept), the sociological aspects (e.g., its effect on employability), the artistic (e.g., the effect of line or color on apparent size, or the effect of fit on appearance and comfort), and the economic (e.g., the cost of fabric or garments in relation to durability or care required).

A home economist may not be a good cook, but she/he will understand some theory and principles about the nutritive quality of foods and the effect on body functions, general health, and reproductive capability; about the relation of sanitation or storage procedures on food safety; about the effect of the appearance of food on sociability or appetite; about the effect of cooking methods on nutritive quality and on energy consumption; and about the cost of food in relation to the above and to other demands on family income.

A home economist will also understand some theory and principles about decision making and/or management in relation to family resources, including money, time, energy, both human and fuel, housing, equipment, and others. The decisions will be affected by considerations of the earth's resources, population (including unborn generations), aesthetics, and other aspects of a general quality of life.

A home economist recognizes the family as the basic social unit and understands principles of human relationships which can guide interaction to produce harmony in families and other groups. She/he understands principles of human development and feels an obligation to apply them in child rearing (whether as parent or other adult) and in spouse relationships as well as other human interaction.

These areas of expertise of home economists suggest the content of a high school course in home economics.

OBJECTIVES OF A LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES SCHOOL HOME ECONOMICS PROGRAM

It should be easy to see how this content relates to seven objectives of Language and International Studies School which have been identified earlier and to two general objectives cited in "The Essentials of Education" (nid.):

1. "*To prepare students to live in an international multilingual community and to communicate across cultural and linguistic boundries.*"

If one is to be able to meet this objective, one surely must first learn to communicate in a family, a community, and with others more distant and more "different" whose mother tongue is the same as one's own. Statistics on violence within families, including murder, surely suggest the need for more preparation on how to be a family member (Gillis, 1980). Communication requires knowledge and skills not acquired in the study of a foreign language. The quality of one's family life affects all other aspects of life, including productivity as an employed person.

2. "*To prepare students to be aware of the interdependence of countries and cultures in a world society.*"

Some contribution to this objective can come from attention to the source (by country) of the various foods we eat, the clothing we wear, and the appliances we use in our homes.

3. "*To prepare students to be aware of the cultural differences and similarities in the world and within their own country.*"

4. "*To prepare students to accept differing individual and cultural perspectives and to appreciate the individual as a participant in the world.*"

As in 1 above, the differences and similarities across cultures or national boundaries can be understood better if differences and similarities between family members, neighbors and friends are understood and "lived with" first and each individual accepted as a human being of equal worth and dignity regardless of sex, socioeconomic status, etc.

5. *"To prepare students to understand the nature of ecological and technological interdependence."*

A focus on home economics on the consumer decisions made in the home and on the need to conserve non-renewable resources, as well as on factors involved in the purchase of foreign technology for household or leisure use, can contribute to meeting this objective.

6. *To develop informed thinking citizens.*

If we would help our students learn to think, let them think. They need practice in solving problems with guidance and in understanding the processes they used to find and evaluate solutions. If this practice is to have meaning and "carryover", the problems must seem real to the learner. Such problems occur in abundance in home economics—problems in family relationships, consumer decisions, use of leisure, management of resources, dietary intake and health—to name a few.

7. *To develop an interdependence of skills and content.*

In no subject is it easier to provide opportunities for students to practice skills while using knowledge than in home economics. Home economics is rich in content and method to contribute to a variety of skills. For example, as one learns to understand children, one increases one's understanding of self, and as one teaches a child to learn, one develops further one's own learning potential. As one applies scientific principles in preparing food, laundering clothing, or caring for equipment, one understands those principles better. As one tries to keep household machines in operating condition, one learns something of the limitations of technology, and as one tries to communicate with a spouse, one learns the limitations of language. One expresses oneself through art as one chooses furnishings for the home, or combines items of clothing into an ensemble, or serves a meal that attracts the eye as well as the palate.

A global perspective on home economics could, in addition to examples already cited, lead to increased understanding of world food problems, of the contribution of household labor to well-being (even if it has not yet been included in the GNP), of family life in other cultures, of how resources are used in other cultures and the relation to quality of life, of our obligation to unborn generations in our own and other countries.

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ISSUES IN TECHNOLOGY

Leader: Robert Davis

Reporters: Robert Davis
Bruce Mainous

Panelists: Patricia Boylan
James Carey
Connie Curtin
Roy H. Forbes
Andrea Kavanaugh
R. Preto-Rodas
Alexander Ringer
Bruce Sherwood
Sally M. Standiford
Patricia V. Egan Turner

INTRODUCTION

Despite several decades of optimistic predictions about what is possible, the fact remains that technology is rarely seen playing a helpful role in today's classrooms, and investments in technological devices all too often fill closets and storerooms, but are rarely used and are frequently not in useable condition. This must serve as a caution to those of us who are interested in seeing technology play a genuinely helpful role in education. Those who do not analyze past failures can easily repeat them.

In planning for educational uses of technology, one should bear in mind at least four general problems:

1. Should one start one's planning by thinking about technological devices–overhead projectors, video discs, micro-computers, satellite communication links, etc.–and then go on to ask how each can be used? Or should one proceed in the opposite direction: identify educational tasks and needs, and then see how these needs can be met by using appropriate technology?

We would argue in favor of using both lines of reasoning, for either alone has serious drawbacks. When one starts with technology, one often finds ways to use that technology even where it is not truly beneficial. One example as Oettinger (1969) points out, is "using a computer as an expensive page turner", to do things that books can do equally well, often with the result of budget increases that are not accompanied by corresponding educational advances.

But on the other hand, if one starts with educational needs, one is likely to omit entirely many important needs, because they are unrecognized, *since there has never been any way to meet such needs in the past*. It seems to be a general principle that no one recognizes the existence of a need *until there seems some possibility, however remote, of satisfying such a need.*

Consequently, our advice is: start from both ends, but watch out for possible uses of technology where it is not really advantageous, and do not overlook a need just because it seems that nothing could possibly be done about it.

2. A second issue to bear in mind is that, while the advances of technology are sometimes slow and orderly, this is not always the case. Sometimes advances are very rapid, and largely unpredictable. Hence there is some danger of planning in terms of a technology that is obsolete or obsolescent—or of possessing a technology that is obsolete or obsolescent!

3. Educators looking at technology often fear that they may overlook subtle differences that may turn out to be very important. The fear is, unfortunately, justified. There *are* a great many technical differences that distinguish alternative equipment, the differences *are* often easy to overlook at first, and they may well turn out, in the light of subsequent experience, to be of the greatest importance. Anyone who owns a gas-guzzling automobile knows how unimportant fuel economy seemed when gasoline was inexpensive, and how large differences in fuel economy loom today. Given strict rationing, the differences could become even greater. There are many educational parallels, and we shall point out one or two of them—while advising readers to be alert to such differences, even differences

that we may all tend to overlook in 1981—but perhaps not in the future.

4. But the most subtle consideration of all is this one: it is not really feasible, in the long run, to identify technology with certain specific *gadgets* (or "hardware"), and to overlook the social context within which the hardware comes to be used. On the contrary, "technology" must be seen to include three kinds of things:

i) the "hardware" or "physical gadget";
ii) social institutions created (or modified to make it possible to use the hardware;
iii) the kinds of uses that are made.

This may seem unnecessarily grandiose. One might prefer a narrower scope, but narrower definitions do not work. To take as one example among many, *Automobiles*. The internal combustion engine powering a wheeled vehicle was the basic gadget (or "hardware"). But it *could* have been lots of things. It could have been trucks, or buses, or motorcycles, or mopeds, or autos, or even locomotives. In the U.S. it became mainly autos. One has the impression that in the USSR it is mostly trucks (and probably also in China), and in parts of Asia it is mainly mopeds, in Africa, mostly buses.

But none of these could develop easily or quickly. Cars certainly could not. Who would buy a car if there were no good roads? Who would build roads if there were no cars? Or filling stations? Or repair shops? What are these vehicles going to use for fuel? And where will they get it? Social inventions that were necessary if cars were to be used; roads; gas stations; factories to make cars cheaply; repair shops; rules of the road; places to park cars; maps to help you get around; motels to sleep in; driver education.

We leave the reader to reflect on how the United States has chosen to use cars and the consequences (e.g., erosion of the tax base in New York City after the rich NYC workers decided to go home every evening across the state line in Connecticut), increases in crime associated with mobility and anonymity; and changes in sexual mores associated with readily-available privacy.

CLASSIFICATION OF TECHNOLOGIES

It may be helpful to think about various possible ways of classifying the different technologies.

Simple to Sophisticated

One classification that can be useful is to think of the degree of "simplicity" or "familiarity", at the one extreme, to the degree of "sophistication" or "novelty" at the other. One immediately thinks of the auto-tutorial possibilities of computer-presented CAI lessons, or the possibilities of visiting foreign cultures because of modern high-speed travel—computers and jet airplanes are new, sophisticated, conspicuous. But "technology" also includes newspapers and magazines, including those from other nations; it includes LP records of songs, including songs sung in German or Russian. Mails permit correspondence with students in Saudi Arabia. One ought not to forget the "simple" technologies, which can also have much to offer.

"Low Initial Cost" to "High Initial Cost"

Experience shows that this is one of the distinctions of which educators are most aware. There are obvious reasons for this situation. We merely call attention to a report of Henry Levin, of Stanford University, that determines the *true actual* costs of certain alternative treatments in education. The Levin report shows clearly that initial cost is often given greater importance than it actually deserves. To move Levin's analysis into actual practice will require considerable effort, possibly including some changes in relevant legislation. But poor economic planning—and that is what present practice often involves—will, in the long run, prove extremely damaging. "The cheapest car you can buy" is not always your best investment—which is why we have automobile loans, and institutions that make them.

Passive Experiences vs. Active Experiences

This classification is judged by most experienced users of educational technology to be the most critical, with *active experiences* being very strongly preferred. Thus, watching television, considered a relatively passive experience for most students most of the time, is not valued highly by experienced educators. (Of course, there can be exceptions—some students are so alert and attentive while watching certain TV programs that the experience should not be classified as "passive", but unfortunately such a state of affairs seems to be relatively unusual.) By contrast, educators report that having students create a half-hour cable TV program to present the work of, say, a Russian poet can be very valuable—not because the TV program itself is necessarily a sterling learning experience for other students, if any, who watch it, but rather because for the students who create the TV program, *that* experience an extremely active one, is highly beneficial. *Creating* the program is a valuable learning experience, although subsequently *watching* such programs may not be (except when the creators watch to see what improvements to make next time).

"Limited Kinds of Responses" vs. "Unlimited Response Possibilities"

In the old technology of multiple-choice tests, it was often argued, certain important tasks and experiences were ruled out because they could not be made to fit into the multiple-choice response format. Creative writing was often mentioned in this context; so was the invention of original proofs for newly-encountered mathematical theorems.

This argument continues today—are certain *kinds* of things not taught, and not tested for, because they cannot be made to fit within some highly restrictive framework? The concern is a real one, and needs to be kept in mind in planning uses of educational technology. [Cf. Davis, 1980]. Will the specific technology in question, under the proposed conditions of usage, place limits on the *kind* of knowledge or skill that can be experienced, tested, or learned?

"Mainly Hardware" to "Mainly Social Invention"

We have argued that most educational technology is a combination of "hardware" and "social inventions that provide the conditions for the use of the hardware". Without roads and gas stations, no automobiles. But some combinations are mostly hardware—with just a little bit of help from a social support system. Others are mostly a social invention—with perhaps just a little bit of help from some gadgets.

In this latter category, consider the "Pioneer Palaces" featured in the Soviet Union's over-all education scheme.

The USSR has, in effect, two separate school systems. From 8 a.m. to 3 p.m., children attend a regular "school", that teaches only basic academic subjects. From 3 p.m. until 6 p.m. (or so), students attend Pioneer Palaces, which are entirely separate from the "school" system. Probably originally designed for political education, Pioneer Palaces nowadays combine the roles played in the U.S. by YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Future Farmers of America, museums, zoos, private piano lessons, private elocution lessons, private Hebrew lessons, model railroading clubs, etc. Typically, a Pioneer Palace provides "elective" courses in: ballet dancing; electronics; computers; animal husbandry; interior decorating; cooking; dress making; swimming; and so on. There may be an "International Correspondence Club", that corresponds (in English!) with other children all over the world; a radio club, that builds radios; a model airplane club; a model railroad club; an actual zoo, operated by the children; a "future astronauts" club; etc.

Such a system could have many advantages for the U.S., as it presently has for the USSR. For example, the USSR is very eager to produce many more computer scientists; they believe putting computers in *schools* would be too expensive at present; but a few computers in Pioneer Palaces can "tease out" the relatively few youngsters in a city who would like to learn about computers (one Pioneer Palace can cover a much wider geographical region than one school does, and makes more efficient use of certain kinds of resources).

One international "Pioneer Palace" in a city of 100,000 could serve *all* the children in the city (and surrounding area) who were interested (presumably the total number would not be too large). A Pioneer Palace could operate afternoons, after school; alternatively it could operate weekends. It could play a major role in solving the *problem of isolation*, at least in certain cases. In one school it may be impossible to have an excellent teacher of, say, Japanese. And, anyhow, there may not be many students in that school who desire to learn Japanese. But in all of that city, there may be a reasonable number of students desiring Japanese—and the whole area is large enough that it could provide one excellent teacher of Japanese. Hence, by having Japanese taught, say, on

Saturdays, teacher and students can be brought together with a minimum disruption of the usual school curriculum.

Clearly, this is a case where the "social invention" is the most of the story—but hardware does play a part, in the form of cars or buses or trolleys that bring the students and the teacher together in one central place.

A SUGGESTIVE LIST OF TECHNOLOGIES

Fearing that our discussion thus far may be dangerously abstract, we present here, without analysis or comment, some of the "technologies" that one might want to consider:

newspapers and magazines in German (or other foreign languages)
excerpts from newspapers and magazines in German (or in French, etc.)
Student created programs for cable TV
a cable TV channel conducted entirely in (say) Japanese
broadcast TV
professionally created programs
video-tape, and video-tape cassettes, etc.
video disco
tape recorders
micro-computers
xeroxing, or other similar reproduction
16 mm. film
recording of songs in German
recordings of poems in German
time-shared computers (which can be used in many different ways, including as a means of communication)
central learning facilities (after the pattern of Soviet "Pioneer Palaces"), especially for instruction in the less-popular foreign languages
satellite communications
short-wave radio
books to teach Russian
books to teach mathematics, using Russian as the medium of instruction (e.g., math textbooks obtained from the Soviet Union)

written correspondence by mail
"correspondence" by mailing audio-cassettes, video-cassettes, etc.
use of local native speakers (e.g., a local resident who grew up in Paris)
"ditto" machines
overhead projectors
photo-offset printing
small specialty publishing houses (perhaps newly created)
journals and magazines to keep educators informed about, say, use of computers to teach foreign languages
use of local resources, such as a local community college or a local university
automatic telephone answering equipment that allows a student to dial a certain number and hear a recorded poem in French, perhaps with questions about it for consideration.

TECHNOLOGY HAS ITS OWN PATTERNS OF GROWTH

It would be wrong to think of a technology as static. Every technology tends to evolve, in response to an evolutionary pressure that is partly intrinsic and internal, partly the result of social forces, and partly the result of deliberate social planning.

We give, in highly abbreviated form, some notion of this evolution in the case of the PLATO CAI system for delivering computer-based lessons in almost any subject imaginable: Russian, Latin, nursing, mathematics, U.S. history, creative writing, etc. [cf. Smith and Sherwood, 1976].

At the outset, PLATO was designed to provide CAI lessons in Latin, or in electrical engineering, etc., of a generally familiar type, but with provision for more than the usual flexibility. It was expected that use would be primarily at the university level, that teachers would create their own CAI lessons, and that "lessons" would be relatively independent and capable of standing alone.

As PLATO terminals (connected to a large time-shared central computer) appeared in more places (there are now over 1,000 connected to the University of Illinois' central computer, and there are central computers at other locations across the U.S. and around the world), new patterns of use appeared.

For one thing, the individual lesson as the basic "unit" was unsatisfactory in some cases. An elementary school mathematics curriculum, for example, is an integrated whole, allowing many ideas to mature and develop simultaneously, from kindergarten to grade 6 or so. This integrated whole is not primarily a collection of many smaller pieces.

To create such large wholes, teams of "authors" or "lesson designers" were needed, working within a careful master plan for an integrated curriculum. The individual author creating the independent lesson was still prominent in other areas, but for an area such as the elementary school mathematics curriculum, the "individual author" and "individual lesson" approach did not work.

This phenomenon of larger entities gave rise to an emphasis on so-called "routers". A *router* is a computer program that maintains records on the progress of every individual student, communicates to the teacher and receives communications from the teacher, and on this basis helps the student to select appropriate lesson material for today's lesson.

There are a great many philosophical assumptions built into any router: should the computer defer to teacher judgements (as the automatic pilot on an airlines allows the pilot to assume varying degrees of control whenever the pilot wishes), or should the computer obstinately (or omnisciently) pursue its own plans for this student? How much choice should the student be allowed to exercise, and in what precise forms?

As a result of philosophical disagreements, different routers were created, and competed with one another in seeking users.

As another development, of a different sort, it became clear that some students did not want to use the computer to help them learn Russian—they wanted to use the computer for its own sake, in order to learn about *computers*.

When students used the computer this way, they were not "consumers" (or "users") of CAI lessons; on the contrary, they *created their own* CAI materials (just as some students create TV programs for cable TV).

Many of these student-created materials were *games*, and consequently there was a great demand to play games on the computer. Some of these games had educational value, and some did not.

Moreover, some games took advantage of the fact that over 1,000 terminals, in many different locations, were actually connected to *one* central computer; this made it possible for a person at one terminal to play against an opponent seated at some other terminal–perhaps a student in Urbana, Illinois would play against an opponent in San Diego, California, or even in Hawaii. Or, if no human opponent could be found–perhaps because it was 2 A M.–the computer itself might play as an opponent.

Consider the possible uses of such a device in the education of the home-bound, or in providing activities for an elderly shut-in!

Indeed, the *communication* between people has come to be an important aspect of PLATO. If one is using a PLATO terminal, one can communicate immediately and directly with anyone else who is using the machine, wherever he or she may be. One does not even need to know *where* the person is. You merely ask the machine to find your friend, say Jill Evans. If she is using the computer, it sends her a message–no matter where she is! The computer tells Jill that you want to "talk" with her. If she is willing to tolerate the interruption, she agrees to "talk" with you. Actually, no voices are involved–what one writes on the screen appears both on one's own screen and on hers; similarly for what she writes. Both can even write at the same time! One can arrange for her to see *everything* on one's screen. If one is having trouble, one can go through one's work while Jill watches one's every move–and when she sees where one is making an error, she types in a message to tell one exactly what one is doing wrong. The two converse back and forth–through typed messages that appear on both screens–until both are satisfied that they understand.

Another extension is the use of PLATO as a "word-processor" or "automatic typewriter". Students found that when they had a long written assignment for English or social studies, writing it on PLATO was better than writing it on a typewriter–if any changes are needed, they are easily inserted with a few key presses, after which PLATO will type out the new corrected version by electric typewriter. The result: perfect term papers, with no errors and no erasures!

As PLATO came to be used to teach reading in kindergarten, it became essential for the computer to be able to *talk* to the children who, of course, could not read. The ability of the computer to talk to students is important also in teaching foreign languages. But how should the computer talk? Via pre-recorded sound (essentially like a stereo system that can choose which pre-recorded message to play back at any given moment)? Via "synthesized speech" (or "digitized sound")? There are also other possibilities.

A strong case can be made for viewing technology not as a matter of *unchanging things* but rather as a continuing process of cultural and economic change.

SOME EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ADDRESSED BY TECHNOLOGY

Any reader can easily make a list of educational needs that might, hopefully, be addressed by appropriate uses of technology. We list here a few of these.

Much Content and Few Students

There are a number of problems that are, in a sense, facets of a single general problem. Imagine Language and International Studies Schools and international education flourishing in the United States. There would be classes in French, German, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, Mandarin Chinese, Arabic, Polish, Italian Portugese, Yoruba, Ibo, and other languages. These classes would operate at beginning levels, at more advanced levels, and at quite advanced levels. That is a very large number of classes. If one adds international economics, the culture of Brazil, science and technology from a world perspective, the anthropology of technological innovations, "area studies", etc., that is an even larger number of classes. In many cases, the numbers of students for some specific course in some specific school will be quite small—how many students in Minot, North Dakota, will want to study fourth-year Japanese this spring? There are additional special cases, such as rural isolation, or predominantly Spanish areas where 1 or 2 students want to study Hungarian.

The general problem, then is one of:

1. bringing the relevant content, in an authentic, attractive, vital form to students;
2. (especially where *human* contact is essential) linking together people of similar interests and serious needs for extensive two-way communication.

These are classical problems calling for the use of appropriate technology.

Elitism; Diversity of Students

To some extent, at least, a part of the thrust of Language and International Studies Schools and international education is elitist: it involves *additions* to the curriculum, the additions involve serious performance capabilities (such as fluency in more than one language), and fairly demanding levels of proficiency are expected (and *must* be expected if the idea is not to become diluted to the point of meaninglessness). However, the educational system deals not only with competent students, but with students of every description. There is thus a clear need to provide for students of widely varying abilities and widely varying interests.

This is one of the classical problems for which educational technology was devised—providing for differences among students.

Teacher Shortage

If the U.S. becomes seriously involved in an extensive program of foreign language instruction, there will be an inevitable demand for language teachers that will far exceed the supply. Technology could help, at least somewhat. (But one needs to be cautious in projecting beyond what is actually possible, or beyond what is educationally desirable.)

Teacher Education

The need here is obvious, and it is also clear that this problem is one that, if it is solved at all, will be solved in part by a judicious use of technology—even if only the technology of books (but note the special demand to publish for possible small audiences, such as "teachers of Yoruba").

Dissemination

Dissemination has long been one of the great disappointments of United States education. For nearly every educational problem, it is possible to find a school or a teacher who has solved the problem successfully—even brilliantly! But these successes almost never become well known, and are rarely implemented successfully elsewhere.

It surely seems that technology ought to be able to help here—by films or videotapes that show successful solutions and how they are achieved, by communications, by travel (for direct face-to-face observation, or for consultation), etc.

Costs

Outside of education, probably the outstanding accomplishment of technology is to increase productivity, and thus to lower costs (or, what is equivalent, to provide higher quality at the same cost). This hardly ever seems to happen in education, but one can always hope.

SOME POSSIBILITIES FOR TECHNOLOGY IN LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES SCHOOLS

We cite here some examples of work in progress at the present time.

Satellites

You're walking through a crowded bazaar in the Middle East. Passersby in every form of dress—from flowing desert robes to the latest Western styles—jostle you under the narrow covered archways. On either side, small shops entice you with merchandise, food, and crafts.

You enter a shop and ask in well-chosen Arabic to see one of the hand made copper trans displayed on the wall. In the Middle East, leisurely conversation, a cup of sweet tea, and patient bargaining precedes any purchase. Your carefully schooled Arabic gets a thorough workout.

The above vignette may soon be as close to you as the nearest high school or university foreign language department thanks to the National Committee for Internationalizing Education through Satellites (NCIES). Headed by Thomas Naff, Director of the Middle East Research Institute at the University of Pennsylvania, the Committee is developing a language and culture systems model using live satellite transmissions between foreign language students and their overseas peers.

NCIES is a nation-wide group of specialists in foreign language and culture studies, educational media production, curriculum planning, satellite broadcasting, and communications law. NCIES has developed a learning system for international education which utilizes live satellite broadcasting and intermediate telecommunications to teach foreign language and culture between a consortium of universities throughout the U.S., Canada, Latin America and the Middle East. Although there is an infinite variety of educational applications of the learning system, NCIES has chosen a language and culture studies model in order to demonstrate the effective transfer of sophisticated, applied skills (language) as well as more abstract, conceptual knowledge (culture and history). The Committee believes that the best way to learn a foreign language is to live in the culture where that language is spoken. However, the cost in time, energy, and money to transport and maintain thousands of students overseas for one or two years of study is far greater than that of the NCIES program which utilizes live satellite broadcasting to put the student in the country.

The live interactive transmission is the central part of the learning systems model, around which the curricula are designed. During preparatory classes for a lesson on the marketplace, for example, students will learn appropriate vocabulary and dialogue, see films, and work with audio cassettes all related to that cultural setting. During the live satellite transmission, students will be in two-way audio video interaction with the merchants and a peer group of students at a real marketplace in that country. Hence, the students will practice foreign language and communications skills as well as learn about the country's culture in an active learning experience. In a very real sense, the U.S. students *are* in a market in an Arabian nation, "transported" there not by jet airplane (an admirable but expensive technology), but rather by TWO-WAY television. The students see and hear the Arab merchants, the Arab merchants see and hear the students. (Most readers will be familiar with this capability from its use on TV news programs at present.)

The system operates equally in two directions. Students of English in Latin America and the Middle East will use the same learning system of live broadcast sessions and preparatory curricula, but adapted to English language study. The foreign areas have been chosen on the basis of interest, availability of necessary technology and the capacity to provide and utilize the materials produced in the project. The growing importance of Latin American culture and language to the United States, and the equally important, however far less familiar, Middle Eastern culture and language make these two regions the primary choices for the development of the project. The assumption is that if the project works well in these two very different cultures, it should be operable anywhere.

NCIES has undertaken the project in response to the well-documented weakness of Americans in foreign language and culture. The NCIES has been testing and evaluating the learning system at the University of Pennsylvania with students of Spanish, Arabic, and English as a Foreign Language. Future testing will involve other partner universities and the use of mobile units for field tests. Domestic and international satellites will be used for dress rehearsals of the two-year demonstration expected to begin in 1982.

Language instructors and educational media specialists from universities across the U.S. and their counterparts in Latin American and Middle Eastern universities will collaborate in the development of curriculum materials and the testing and evaluation of the learning system. Domestic and overseas participants will be trained in the final learning systems model for the two year operational demonstration.

The domestic consortium of cooperating institutions includes Florida International University, Michigan State University, Syracuse University, the University of Nebraska at Lincoln, the University of Southern California, the University of Hawaii, and the University of Pennsylvania.

Among the NCIES members are independent TV Producer Adrian Malone; Director of Pacific Satellite Programs John Bystrom; President of Communications 21 Corporation Robert Filep; and the General Manager of Nebraska Educational TV, Jack McBride. Ex-officio members include representatives from NASA, the U.S. Department of Education, the U.S. International Communications Agency, and the Joint Council for Educational Telecommunications.

Large System Computers for Communication

One of the early uses of computers in education was to teach lessons of various types in CAI mode. This use continues, of course, and grows in both extent and sophistication...but, where large time-shared computers are involved, the fact that many terminals are all connected to one single computer (with links that may use phone lines, microwave transmission, coaxial cable, satellites, or trans-Atlantic cables) makes possible, as we have pointed out earlier, the use of the computer as a means of communication. Possibilities include:

1. Using the computer to connect you with some other user, so that you can each write messages on the display screens, and the messages will appear on the screens of *both* terminals;

2. Using the computer in "monitor" mode, so that, in addition to (1), one of the terminals can observe all the work being done on the other terminal. This allows the person at one terminal to provide hints, assistance, or instruction for the person at the other terminal.

3. Depositing "electronic mail" in the computer, for "delivery" to some specified other person whenever that other person signs on to use the computer, no matter where they are, or which terminal they use.

4. The preceding possibilities allow a teacher to interact with a student, in "real time" exchanges, or to exchange "mail" and to conduct "correspondence courses". If postal delivery is replaced by "electronic mail", the time between a student's sending a message to a teacher, and receiving back a response, becomes a matter of minutes or hours with the electronic mail, whereas postal delivery would involve waits of days or weeks. In "monitor mode" or with a "talk" option, the exchange is immediate, as it would be in a telephone conversation. Unlike phone conversations, the screens display diagrams, drawings, etc., in addition to text.

The teacher might be in Urbana, Illinois, and the students could be spread from Hawaii and Alaska to Florida and Maine. But in a quite real sense, they would form one class.

5. The same technical capabilities allow a student to send messages to the *authors* of lessons; authors thus find out, almost immediately, where their lessons are unclear.

6. In addition, these capabilities allow the creation of a special "Notes File". For all the students in this geographically-dispersed "class", the computer can maintain a "notes file" which can be read at any time by any student (or by the teacher), and into which any student (or the teacher) can insert notes

at any time. This, thus, is a kind of electronic "forum" or "community bulletin board". In the case of a language class, it could be a requirement that all notes be written in French, Yoruba, Japanese, or whatever.

The low data rates for transmitting "forum" text make it economically feasible to consider linking up with schools in foreign countries. A forum for, say, school faculty could share questions, and information, on the availability of historical and cultural material written in Arabic or Ibo.

The Microcomputer

Since microcomputers exist in the schools now being used for computer science and mathematics, foreign language experts should investigate them as possible aids to the teacher and to students learning a foreign language. In addition, the particular reasons for the use of microcomputers in the Language and International Studies School need to be explored.

Before looking into the school use of microcomputers, let us briefly describe these devices. The microcomputer consists of a microprocessor (a computer on a chip) and associated components and a number of memory chips—all connected to a keyset (like a typewriter) and a monitor screen (like a TV set). A disk drive and/or tape recorder is attached to feed material into the computer or record material from the computer. The program—for teachers, the lesson—is held on a five-inch floppy disk (called a diskette) or a tape cassette. The student puts the disk into the disk drive. The program gives the student information on the screen and asks questions. The students answer by typing their responses. Their answers and subsequent screen responses are all visible on the screen.

In the Language and International Studies School we can picture the use of microcomputers by the language teacher who wishes on occasion to break his group into smaller sections for additional conversation practice in accordance with the mandate of the Language and Internationl Studies School to achieve communicative competence. Many students in the class can work at their own pace on interactive computer exercises designed to perfect designated skills, freeing the teacher to converse with smaller groups. Secondly, those students who require remedial work or those who can work far in advance of the others can be accommodated at the computer terminal. Since the Language and International Studies School accepts students of varying academic abilities, the computer will assist these students with individual instruction. Thirdly, since the Language and International Studies School will be expected to teach as many languages as possible including uncommonly taught ones, at least a reading knowledge of additional languages can be taught in this way, complementing the main language offerings of the school.

In the fourth place, the students and teachers can integrate work in computer science and in languages by preparing some of their own language exercises for the microcomputer. Creating drills is one good way to learn material more thoroughly. Motivation for learning will be enhanced also because many students love to work with computers. Finally, in rural schools a second or, even in desperate cases, a first foreign language can be taught with the assistance of the microcomputer. This has the advantage over TV materials in that the lessons are active for the students. These rural schools would plan on purchasing tested professional programs.

However, the microcomputer is not magic. The programs are only as good as the author is inventive. Before you judge programs for possible use:

1. Try to find descriptions and evaluations of educational microcomputer programs, (a list of publications which are likely to have such reviews is attached).
2. Look at advanced big computer programs such as those on PLATO (the teaching computer system at the University of Illinois) to get ideas about what to look for in small computer programs.
3. What foreign language programs are available for microcomputers right now? These materials in computer parlance are called "software" in contrast to the computers themselves which are called "hardware". There are other programs to be explored. Write for the attached catalogs.
4. Some book publishers are or soon will be in the business of publishing software.

To summarize the advantages and disadvantages of the large interconnected computer system versus the stand alone microcomputer: the overriding consideration for the public schools is price. The large system is very expensive not only in equipment and connect costs, but also in the continuing communication costs. Not only can equally effective educational programs be carried by the microcomputer, but even limited communication can be accomplished on the microcomputer with a cluster arrangement.

Finally, in the near future sound will be increasingly available, on tape and with speech synthesizers. Also video-disks have been interfaced to microcomputers, permitting professional movies with sound to be attached to interactive teaching programs on the microcomputer. More and more commercial material is becoming available.

THE LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL LANGUAGE LABORATORY/MEDIA LEARNING CENTER–A SYNTHESIS OF TYPES OF TECHNOLOGY

The long title applied to this section mirrors the evolution which has taken place in many institutions and which will undoubtedly occur in the international school: the technology acquired for foreign language (FL) comes to be appreciated and used by many other departments. It reflects also the distance between the early tape recorder language laboratories and today's multimedia centers. Indeed, this section of our report will discuss:

1. The technician's shop;
2. The audiovisual laboratory;
3. Short wave radio;
4. The computer laboratory;
5. The television laboratory;
6. The live person laboratory.

Some principles to bear in mind:

Motivation is the greatest single key to successful language learning.

The language laboratory (LL) brings the voice and accent (and perhaps the visage) of a native speaker to the FL student, and prolongs many times over the length of time the student is exposed to the spoken language.

Insofar as possible, passive listening and viewing are to be avoided, while all opportunities for student-media interaction are to be exploited.

The LL provides unlimited possibilities for individualized instruction and self-teaching.

With today's technology, the opportunities for motivational and creative activities are endless.

The LL is effective in teaching culture as well as FLs.

To the basic functions of teaching and learning, the modern LL in the international school will add the dimension of communication.

Traditional LL course material exists for the purpose of teaching the FL itself. In the Language and International Studies School there must be course material in FLs for use in the other humanities, social studies, and the sciences.

While there will undoubtedly be continued reliance on commercial publishers for course materials, the teachers at the Languages and International Studies School must reserve the right and the capability to create and produce their own materials. The LL must be a basic resource of counsel and implementation in this process. In the context of this report, the term "technology" includes people.

Organization

Advisory Committee. This committee will set the policies for the operation of the LL, and will include a teacher from each of the instructional departments of the school.

Director. The director is responsible for implementing the policies set by the advisory committee and for the operation of the LL.

Technician. The presence of a professional technician is essential, since dirty or broken equipment is not only of no use, but arouses frustration and antagonism among both students and teachers. It is his/her responsibility to see that the equipment works, and a daily check of all equipment is routine.

Divisions/Activities

The Technician's Shop. This is the heart of the LL, and must be fully equipped for repairs and construction.

The Audio-Visual Laboratory.

1. Cassette Recorder-Players

To be installed in individual booths or carrels with glass fronts facing the teacher's console. The booths can thus be used either for library use (i.e., individual student self-use of a selected cassette) or for instructional lab use (i.e., the teacher directs the lab activity, communicating with the group or with individual students through the headphones as needed, from the console). Using the recording capability, the student can hear the native speaker, then record his own pronunciation and play back both versions for comparison and correction.

2. The Cassette Library

Adequate space must be provided for shelving several thousand cassettes, since any one course may generate several dozen cassettes.

a) Catalog
   The librarian must keep a current, tightly organized catalog of the tapes and cassettes possessed by the LL.
b) Master copies
   The master copies must be conserved and not available for loan.
c) Copies for lending
   Lending out cassette copies to students, faculty, and community users will be a normal part of the operation.

3. The Duplicating Facility

High Speed duplicators will be needed;

a) for converting reel-to-reel tapes to cassettes;
b) for duplicating cassettes for various purposes, including making cassettes for loan and, with a charge to recover costs, duplicating cassettes brought in by students.

4. Recording Booth

A soundproof recording booth is essential for faculty and students to produce their own materials. Live recording in the classroom or office simply does not produce satisfactory results. The booth must be large enough to accommodate a small table and chairs for four to six students. An imaginative use of the recording booth was made by Professor Robert J. Nelson of the University of Illinois, whose students re-wrote French prose and poetry in dialogue form, then produced these as radio plays, which were later broadcast by the University of Illinois radio station, WILL. This is the type of media-related activity which stimulates motivation and calls on the creativity of the student.

5. Telephone Access

This device enables the student or a member of the community to hear a tape over the telephone by dialing from home. This is useful in the case of course material being used by many students, which would justify the telephone arrangement for a particular set of tapes, not merely for convenience, but also since many more people can be served than could fit into the restricted number of laboratory carrels. It also makes possible the dissemination of materials and information to the community, including FL broadcasts of news, etc. originating in other countries and captured by shortwave radio.

6. Slide Viewers

These will preferably be the type with interior projection and cassette player combined in one unity. They will be mounted in carrels for individual use. Good recorded lectures accompanied by slides are most effective.

7. Slide Library

Slide collections are an important resource in the teaching of culture. Slide collections typically are gathered from several sources: commercial suppliers, frequently in connection with textbooks or as special slide-based culture courses; from students and faculty who have taken trips abroad; made in the LL by photographing pictures in books at the request of teachers desiring specific course material.

8. Darkroom and Photographic Facilities
Equipment, space, and furnishings are needed for photography to produce slides, prints, and other graphics at the request of both faculty and students. Under careful supervision, such facilities should also be made available to students working on class projects or individual teacher-directed projects. Having its own photographic facilities enables the LLL to take advantage of the rich resource of private slides and pictures taken by traveling faculty and students.

9. Audiovisual Equipment for use in the classrooms
This includes, overhead, slide, filmstrip, and movie projectors, cassette players and record players. Some schools may want these placed in a central office, which could be a part of the LL, to be checked out by faculty, but it is frequently the custom to have such equipment in a storage cabinet in each classroom, to be used by the respective teachers as needed.

Short wave radio. The value of short wave radio is that it affords more than a classroom-sheltered experience; it provides actual utilization of the FL in direct contact with native speakers talking from their own homeland in their own cultural environment.

Again, in this section, we concentrate on the FL field but a little thought will reveal the endless opportunities for tuning in on the rest of the world in the other arts and humanities, the social sciences and the natural sciences. For much of this discussion of short wave radio, we are indebted to Professor Earl Thompson of Elmhurst College.

The radio facilities will provide for both receiving and sending. Short wave radio technology is now at a stage which allows broad possibilities for teaching FLs. Today's electronically tuned receivers do not require endless dial turning and are less susceptible to fading and static than their ancestors. Overseas stations can be locked in to good reception at will. The willing broadcasters of all continents and in countless languages are within fingertip reach.

The ways of using radio are extremely varied. The receivers should be available for "library" use a part of the time, i.e., for individual students to listen to news, talks, plays, commercials, music. Much of the material will be recorded on tape directly from the receiver through a jack to the recorder. The tapes are then available, with different levels of editing, for a variety of exercises and uses, for example, in the conversation class, the literature class, or as a community outreach service on the telephone access machine in the LL.

The short wave radio directories published in the several countries are very high-level in their accuracy and scope of information, and are easily available. *The World Radio-TV Handbook* is packed with information including addresses.

But the interest which will not fail to be aroused by the good receivers in many students (as well as teachers and community members) will pale by comparison to the enthusiasm fired among those who are introduced to the art of "sending." The immense network of ham radio operators, the same race the world over, will be opened to the students in the Language and International Studies School which provides a few short wave transmitters in its LL. Here the FL learners will be using the language to communicate with native speakers talking from their own countries and in their unadulterated cultural contexts. The educational possibilities are obvious. Just as valuable for cultural opening and for subjects other than FL will be the many exchanges which can be made in English, not only with mother-tongue anglophones in Great Britain, Canada, Australia, etc., but with the speakers of English as a second language in countries where ESL has developed its own slightly different but standard grammar, as India and Nigeria.

One caveat in this matter of amateur or ham radio transmitting is that the framework is subject to the governmental controls of many nations. The student talking over the radio waves must be a licensed amateur operator, or there must be a licensed radio operator present at the time. This can be easily solved, of course, by having a LL director or the technician become a licensed operator. One other difficulty is that there is a "third party limitation" imposed by some countries, notably most countries in Western

Europe. But for some of those languages other sources can be found, as Canada for French and Latin America for Spanish.

Another bonus connected with radio activities lies in the stimulation for additional practical language work afforded by advertisers both on the air and in radio magazines. There are countless offers of descriptive advertising material available for the asking and frequently with toll free telephone numbers.

The Computer Laboratory. While practically any subject can be taught with the proper computer, in order to keep this section of the report within bounds, we shall limit our discussion to FL instruction on the computer.

For the most effective FL instruction, we expect our terminal to be equipped with:

1. audio capabilities responsive to the computer signals;
2. the capacity for interior projection of color slides in addition to its own broad range of programmable graphics;
3. a touch panel which allows activation of the computer by simply touching the terminal's screen.

Properly programmed and used, the computer furnishes the student with a challenging, interactive, and intriguing experience maintaining a high degree of motivation, creativity, and retention. It does so in precisely those elements of FL study often considered boring by the young learner: morphology, syntax, spelling, and grammar in general. In this domain, for practice in language basics, the computer can be superior to the textbook or other LL media. For this to be true, however, requires three conditions:

1. *The linguistic materials are programmed in keeping with sound linguistic theory.*

For the commonly taught languages, the questions of grammatical sequence, syntactic progression, and introduction of vocabulary have been largely settled with the work of linguists over the past thirty years. Much work still needs to be done on these questions for the less commonly taught languages, and the dynamic LL will make its contribution to resolving these needs.

2. *The computer thoroughly individualizes each student's work.*

Working at split-second speed, the computer can give oral or written stimuli, with the stimulus for each student based on the act just performed; it can immediately judge the student's answer, show the nature of any errors, whether in morphology, syntax, spelling, or other, and guide the student in correcting the error; it can furthermore select from each exercise the stimuli of greatest help to the individual student, or from the stock of exercises those shown to be of greatest need to correct or strengthen the individual's weakness as revealed in previous performance. The records of the students' performance can be kept over a period of time with the computer regularly analyzing the individual's needs and furnishing the correctives.

3. *The program of instruction covers an extensive amount of materials.*

The advantage of the computer is realized to the fullest as the student masters the more complex elements of the language, thus calling on the computer's peculiar capacity to analyze the need for and to provide a great variety of individualized drills.

The computer terminal thus approaches the ultimate in student-centered technology, and it can provide the most favorable kind of learning environment. It has been found, for example, that the student who suffers embarrassment at being corrected in the classroom feels comfortable with the terminal and proceeds with the acquisition of the new language without the unease and timidity so often present as hindrances in the FL classroom.

Nor should the storage and retrieval capabilities of the computer be overlooked. It is difficult to underestimate the value of collecting a corpus of responses over a period of time, whether for an individual or for a group. The errors are valuable: as noted above, for the individual, they can be used to identify personal needs; for a group, they can reveal the general problems with a particular language, or of a specific weakness in course materials. With this knowledge in hand, the computer allows instant revision of the lesson or course material. (We might think of a comparable situation with a textbook; the author wishing to improve a textbook must await the publisher's pleasure, probably over a period of years, to bring out a new edition.)

It is difficult to be exhaustive in discussing the advantages of the computer, nor is this report meant to be. We might mention the device of a programmed pacer for improving reading speed, or the fact that teachers of languages using other than the Roman alphabet are sure that they teach their writing systems in much less time. But to conclude, we may remind ourselves of the speed at which the computer works, and think of the ease of "looking up" words at the touch of a key rather than by the laborious thumbing through the vocabularly in the back of the book.

This facility should consist of at least one studio, which must have a "prop" room, and provision for playback viewing. The equipment will include movable recording/playback equipment which can be wheeled into the classrooms, and at least one portable camera for off-premises use.

The playback viewing space and equipment will be fully as important as the studio and recording devices, since it is here that the results of the recording will be made available and utilized for the most part. While the general public may think of TV in terms of gazing at the boob tube, the educator thinks of the versatility of videotape. That is why the word "recording" appears so often in our exposé. To clarify, "recording" can refer to the videotaping of a class or of a student giving a talk, for example (the term "mirror-recording" is sometimes used), or it can be "off-the-air recording" when a videotape recorder is used to record a program broadcast by a commercial or Public Service station.

We should recognize also, in the educational context, that the bulk of the TV work is not intended to result in a slick production to be broadcast over the networks to the standard forty million viewers, though the possibility of a public service FL course, cultural presentation, or publicity for your outreach program must not be overlooked. In general, our locally produced videotape recording is for in-house use, and the value of the whole thing may actually lie more in the preparation, the conception, the script-writing, the rehearsals, the playback, the critique, than in the finished tape as a production.

Bearing in mind our principles of individualization and interaction to differentiate the learning laboratory from a simple listening-viewing center it is important that some playback viewers (an example would be the presently popular Betamax) be so equipped that the individual student can start and stop the tape at will, and that it have a "scanning" device enabling the student to retrieve in short order any part of the tape.

With these general remarks out of the way, let us see how the TV laboratory can be used in FL instruction.

The advantages of video for the teaching of culture are many. A broad spectrum of cross-cultural studies can be handled by TV. This is an activity into which can be brought the cooperation of foreign students and faculty, who are usually quite willing to present for recording activities ranging from simple conversations in their language with appropriate gestures to elaborate performances of such formalized customs as the Japanese tea ceremony.

For the FL student, viewing the speaker, whose characteristic gestures, facial expressions, and movements of the speech organs are inseparably integrated with the language, is an invaluable learning experience. This is a great added dimension which TV has brought to the language laboratory. Much can be done in the FL class after a few minutes viewing of this kind.

One of the most welcome contributions of TV to the FL scene is the great motivational value in the preparation of skits, plays, and dialogs in the FL. The repetition of the language forms in a situational context with all students anxious to do their best causes vast improvement in the speaking-listening comprehension skills while doing much to increase cultural awareness.

The specific uses of TV in FL learning are limited only by the imagination of the teacher and students. With student creativity in mind, Gale Crouse and Bruce A. Noll (1980) list several including the following: dramatizations; interviews; everyday situations (record on videotape without microphone two- or three-minute "vignettes" of typical activities such as grocery shopping, going to the bank, etc.; the students then write, record, and produce the sound track in the FL. Note that the same videotape can be used for creating the dialog and sound track in any FL taught in the school,); dubbing, i.e., creating the dialog for a program or portion thereof recorded off the air without sound; and self-analysis for both students and teachers.

Netta Gillespie, TV supervisor in the University of Illinois Language Learning Laboratory, in her paper, "The Role of Television as an Aid in Foreign Language Teaching," soon to be published as a technical report by the Language Learning Laboratory, also sees TV as a powerful motivator, pointing out that while skits can be done without TV, TV heightens motivation in the same way that an outside audience affects a performance, while being less time-consuming, and TV allows playback and critiques. Gillespie also refers to the literature showing how some FL basics can be taught with TV: grammar and composition (Berwald 1976); listening comprehension aided by seeing facial expressions and manner of pronunciation (Kern, 1959-60); speaking practice; and she points out the value of mini-dramas used as models for pattern practice drills, observing that the visual element serves "the function of contextualizing the meaning of word patterns being learned".

In addition, Gillespie outlines the potential of TV for teaching the literature of the FL. Again, there is a choice of techniques: the tape may show a professional actor reading or reciting, for the study of intonation and pronunciation, a method employed by Nostrand (1962); there may be a scene from a play, the viewing and discussion to be followed by assignments for student participation; dramatizations of other genres (prose, poetry), may be written and practiced by the students for video recording (this reminds us of the method mentioned above, using audio recording, the same technique being adaptable to video recording). But once again we find ourselves in an area of broad possibilities open to the creativity of the students and teachers.

Gillespie underlines the importance of a domain long recognized by linguists and anthropologists as extremely important in the study of language as a cultural pattern but totally neglected in most FL classrooms (Corder, 1966; Hayes, 1965; Rivers, 1964): the non-verbal elements of communication, as context and kinesics. In this field, TV brings these matters to life as no other medium can, and again, the possibilities for the fruitful exploitation of such material are countless. It is with TV, too, that some of the impressive results of recent sociolinguistic studies can make the transition to the teaching mode, in showing the surroundings of "situational dialects", or "degrees of formality" in speech according to status and occasion (Hayes, 1965).

To conclude this section we should say a word about developing technology in the video area. Cable systems make possible the delivery of both audio and televised materials to dormitories and homes. Coordination and integration of computer and video technology are being effected, with expansion of the applications of both media. There is some indication that videodiscs may facilitate the use of video while reducing costs, but at the present time only the finished videodisc recording can be bought; the LL cannot make its own videodisc recordings, which must be made from a master template which costs about $1500 to make (Wall Street Journal, Nov. 21, 1980). Finally, it is expected that the versatility of the multiple channels offered by satellite transmission will soon be within practical reach of educational users.

The Live Person Laboratory. The live person laboratory originated years ago as a negative response to the basic audio lab and has now come full circle to be a dynamic, positive approach integrated with today's technology. When it was found that some students were not responsive to the early routine drills on tape, some teachers began replacing the headphone-listening time by live extra-class contact sessions, usually in small groups. Sometimes with individuals, and usually for language games, skits, or freer conversation sessions than were possible in the classroom.

Even with the improvements in learning material and equipment, this type of lab session is still very much alive and has developed new forms. One is in the concept of individualized instruction and another in the related concept of self-instruction. First started as a means of affording instruction in the less commonly taught languages for which a class could not be gotten together, a methodology has been developed (as well as materials), and is now applied in the teaching of many languages, and has many adherents with their own organization, the National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages. A frequent form taken in such instruction is for the LL to furnish coordinated facilities which might be audio, video, or computer, and space where the student will meet at intervals with a native informant following a syllabus developed or provided by the faculty member supervising the course.

This type of activity may result in the participation of a broad spectrum of people of varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Foreign students, American students who have lived and had schooling in a non-anglophone environment, community speakers of other languages, are quite willing to contribute time or to work on a teaching assistant's salary as native informants, part-time instructors, or simply conversation partners. There must be an organization, of course, appropriate to the needs and goals of the specific Language and International Studies School. It is useful to have a file of human FL resources, that is, a card file showing the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of foreign students and faculty and of local speakers of other languages, each card to show particularly the language(s) spoken and whether that person is willing to share his or her competence in the programs of the Language and International Studies School.

Another form of the live person laboratory is the drama lab. S. Cernyak and R. Reimer (1980) report on the success of this concept as it is applied at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. They stress the motivational value of the activity, the benefits of constant practice, and the opportunities afforded for detailed improvement of pronunciation and diction. They recommend the use of well-chosen radio plays whose small number of characters, clean cut division into brief scenes, and natural dialog make them appropriate for this kind of learning activity. And here we again mention the value of student-written skits and dialog.

Then, to come full circle, when the mini-drama in the exotic tongue has been learned, rehearsed, and polished, some enterprising student will suggest putting it on TV, and the live person lab will be making the positive and appropriate response to the opportunities afforded by the total lab technology.

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ISSUES IN TEACHER PREPARATION, CERTIFICATION, AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Leader:	James Raths
Reporter:	Jean D'Arcy Maculaitis
Panelists:	Orestes Crespo A. Johnson Mary Jane Kelley Gera Miller James R. Miller Alice C. Omaggio Robert J. Young

Teachers in Language and International Studies Schools face a difficult but exciting task. They must set the goals of achievement for their pupils very high because the stakes are so great.[1] Teachers must adopt certain of the second language learning practices of English as a second language (ESL) and bilingual education (BE) but clearly are not limited to such practices and disciplines. For those whom she or he teaches, a working command of English is an educational essential, as is demonstrated mastery in a second and/or third language, a knowledge of history and a sensitivity to and awareness of the culture(s) being studied. Where possible, intensive instruction in *both* commonly taught languages, e.g., French, Spanish, Italian and German and uncommonly taught languages, e.g., Arabic, Russian, Mandarin, Cantonese and Swahili, should be provided. Such a global education should prepare students to compete in the international job market of today's and tomorrow's world. One financial expert has likened a knowledge of a foreign language and culture to insurance with relation to job acquisition or job security (Porter, 1975). In essence, international education calls for a hard, realistic appraisal of our educational system from without and an extraordinary degree of interdisciplinary cooperation and community support from within.

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[1] The study of foreign languages and intercultural education has been tied directly to our national security by military experts and scholars. See S.L. Stapleton, "Remarks presented to the regional meeting of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, Houston, Texas: February 23, 1979. See also, James A. Perkins, et al., *Strength Through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S. Capability–A Report to the President from the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies*, U.S. Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: October 15, 1979.

We recognize that because of the wide difference in educational institutions which will prepare such teachers, it is not appropriate to detail a set curriculum or to recommend a series of course titles. However, it is useful and crucial to formulate the principles on which such a program of teacher preparation should be based, especially at a time when "... there is a (slow but) growing acceptance of the United States as a culturally pluralistic society as well as a realization that the nation has attained a degree of international dependence greater than ever before in our history." (Hanvey, 1970).

Accordingly, we have set forth the following principles in the form of general guidelines. Rather than specifying courses of study and credit hours, these guidelines emphasize those personal qualities, attitudes, skills, experience(s) and knowledge which IS teachers should possess. The manner of the formulation owes much to *Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States*, (Norris, 1972), and like it, represents the consensus of a number of interdisciplinary experts in the field, drawn from all levels of instruction and supervision.

These guidelines are intended to be applicable to language and international studies teachers at *all* levels. However, it is essential to note that *every* teacher of language and international studies should have the *same* general academic preparation as teachers of other disciplines at comparable levels. Although there obviously are elements in their academic preparation which teachers of language and international studies share with others, the uniqueness and crucial nature of their educational responsibility must not be neglected, nor should it be forgotten that these guidelines have been designed to prepare teachers for this particular task. These are not guidelines, for example, for English, English as a Second Language, social studies, bilingual vocational education, or foreign language in general, although clearly they would share many common elements with the preparation of such educators. It should be noted that the highest standards possible have been applied because the aim throughout has been the development of a program outline which is oriented toward the achievement of a highly specific and critical educational goal, i.e., *the proper training/retraining of language and international studies teachers at all levels of instruction.*

These guidelines are intended to suggest desirable competencies for teachers in Language and International Studies Schools. Like all teachers, their preparation will be based on a sound *general education*, i.e., courses and personal/professional experiences which help them become well-educated individuals with a solid background in the liberal arts and sciences, including psychology and bilingual vocational and consumer education. *Academic specialization* courses and experiences will help them become proficient in the requisite area(s) of concentration, and *professional education* courses and experiences will help them prepare to be teachers.

The statement which follows presupposes concurrent or prior completion of the baccalaureate degree from an accredited college or university and is, therefore, concerned primarily with academic specialization and professional education. The statement:

1. Defines broadly the role of the international studies teacher in American schools,
2. Describes his or her personal qualities and professional competencies and experiences, and
3. Offers general guidelines for a teacher education program and characterizes the features of such a program.

A. THE ROLE OF THE INTERNATIONAL STUDIES TEACHER IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

Teachers of international studies in American schools are expected to:

1. Progressively develop in their students comprehension of and ability to interact with English-speaking American society

as well as other linguistically different societies in general and with the language group(s) being studied in particular.[3]

a) Help students gain mastery of both receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) first and second language skills.

b) Help students gain an awareness of and respect for similarities and differences between the American English-speaking culture and the culture(s) being studied.

c) Help students gain knowledge of the literature, social customs, traditions, folklore, history and political, educational and financial structures of their native culture as well as that of the culture(s) being studied.

2. Properly evaluate their students' progress toward the above-mentioned objectives, diagnose students' specific linguistic strengths and weaknesses and adjust instruction, where necessary.

3. Make wise and sound selection and use of approaches, methods, techniques, procedures, tests, materials, and aids appropriate for effective language teaching of their students and for meeting stated curriculum objectives; identify and correct biased language and historical inaccuracies found in tests, texts, and other materials used in the program and to train students to do likewise.

a) Evaluate the effectiveness of these teaching/testing procedures and materials in achieving desired student behavior(s) and revise their use, where necessary.

b) Achieve and maintain vitality in the instructional program by making changes in goals, procedures, tests, and materials whenever such changes are deemed appropriate, by further developments in language teaching theory and practice, or by new and significant language testing techniques and procedures.

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[3] By definition, this would involve direct contact with speakers of the target language(s). This might be achieved by greater involvement with those in the community who are native speakers of the target language(s) or by spending time in the nation(s) in question.

4. Correlate the sequence and scope of her or his teaching with that of other instructional disciplines in the curriculum and contribute to the specific curriculum goals of inter-related disciplines.

B. PERSONAL INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL EXPERIENCE(S), PERSONAL QUALITIES, AND PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCIES OF THE INTERNATIONAL STUDIES TEACHER IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

To achieve the objectives of their teaching roles, teachers in Language and International Studies Schools are expected to:

1. Spend a certain amount of time overseas in the culture(s) of language origin equivalent to one year or more. Additional refresher course in the culture(s) of language origins are also very important. These are to be determined at appropriate intervals, i.e., at an interval of not more than two years.

2. Possess and demonstrate a genuine and sustained commitment to a spirit of cooperation between and among students, teachers and the staff and be willing to work closely with the community to help educate *all* its children equally well.

3. Possess personal qualities which contribute to their success as classroom teachers, insure understanding and respect for his or her students and their cultural setting as well as the people and cultural setting(s) of the language(s) being studied, and make the teacher a perceptive, trusted, valued and involved member of the school and the community.

4. Demonstrate a mastery of spoken and written American English, as well as proficiency in the second and third language at a level commensurate with their role as a language model for those languages. Whether they are native speakers or second language speakers of the target language(s), the command of the language(s) should combine qualities of accuracy, compre-

hension, fluency and authentic pronunciation; familiarity with the literature of the target language(s) is also important.

5. Understand the nature of language, its social, regional and functional varieties, its formal and informal styles and its structure and development.

6. Have a thorough knowledge of first and second language acquisition process and age-related concerns as well as an understanding of the effects on language learning of socio-cultural variables in the learning situation.

7. Have a thorough understanding of language teaching principles and demonstrate that understanding by applying these principles to various classroom situations, assessment, and instructional materials, as needed.

8. Have the credentials, skill and experience to be able to successfully teach another discipline in a second language, where appropriate and required.

9. Understand the principles and procedures for the proper selection of valid standardized second language tests as well as know how to prepare, critique and/or improve various types of classroom assessment tools and evaluate the effectiveness of teaching materials, procedures, and curricula.

10. Be open to and have a sophisticated understanding of the factors which contribute to the life styles, priorities and interdependency of individuals residing in the global age in general and in a pluralistic society in particular.

11. Have some familiarity with the principles, practices and techniques essential to bilingual, vocational, and consumer education.

C. GUIDELINES FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM IN LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

A program to prepare beginning teachers must provide them with opportunities to develop the academic and professional competencies described in Section B above. The competencies in question should be developed to a level of *proven* ability, thereby enabling the teacher to satisfactorily meet the objectives specified in Section A above, as demonstrated through actual teaching responsibility under experienced supervision and through acceptable student performance.

The program features instruction and experiences which contribute directly to development of competencies in first and second language linguistics, psycholinguistics, language pedagogy and assessment, including supervised teaching experience, studies in culture, vocational and consumer education, historical cross-cultural perspective and sociological methodology. In addition, the program requires objective assessment of *both* English and foreign language proficiency of *all* candidates and provides or arranges for supplementary instruction, where necessary.

A teacher education program may be viewed as having *five* main components with overlapping objectives. The following list of topics and experiences given here (with cross references to Section B above) is *not* intended to be exhaustive or limiting. Rather, it aims to be merely broadly suggestive of the content of each instructional component.

1. *Academic specialization.*

Courses and training with the primary objectives of helping student teachers to gain understanding and knowledge of the nature of language, English language systems as well as systems of the language(s) being studied, language learning, and language in culture.

a) ***Linguistics, English linguistics and second and third language linguistics*** (B3)—the nature of language, its systematic organization, variation and change; major models of linguistic description; major subsystems of present-day English and the target language(s) (grammatical, phonological/graphemic, and lexical/semantic), historical development, dialectical variation, and contrastive linguistics with special reference to the comparison of American English with the target language(s) being studied.

b) ***Psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics*** (B4)—language acquisition processes in first and second language learning, age differentials in language learning, individual teaching and learning styles; basic socio-cultural variables in language use and language learning, types of bilingual and multilingual educational situations and settings; social determiners of dialect and style, and degrees of communicative competence.

c) Culture[3] and society (B3, B4, B8)—the elements of sociocultural systems; cultural pluralism in American society; identification of cultural mix of community in which one is working and adaption of the curriculum to be adopted; outreach for cultural histories/geneologies/roots programs; knowledge and appreciation of the folklore, music, dance, and food of the target language(s); effect of geographical environment on cultural values and language; effect of historical experiences on cultural values and language; knowledge of the target language's verbal and non-verbal cultural cues to insure correct behavior in the language(s) being studied; culturally determined life styles and learning styles and their effect on second language learning.

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[3] Culture in this context implies:

1. *High Culture:* the self conscious production of professionals in the arts and humanities. Examples of high culture include literature, paintings, architecture, drama, cinema, sculpture, and most forms of music, dance, fashion design, and the other arts.

2. *Folk Culture:* the self-conscious productions of non-professionals, that is, of people in all walks of life; it takes in a wide variety of artifacts, rule-governed events, and explicit social expectations. In a word, folk culture is the consciously traditional. Examples include oral tradition, religious rites, folk dancing, popular songs, national dishes, superstitions, rules of etiquette, sports and games, holidays, modes of hospitality, courtship practices, treatment of the dependent, body care and adornment, rites of passage, and so forth.

3. *Deep Culture:* the largely intangible and out-of-awareness ways in which people from a given region think, feel, and behave in human interactions. The term "out-of-awareness" suggests that implicit and rarely

2. *Pedagogy.*

Foundations, methods and practicum—courses and training with the primary objective of providing theoretical and methodological foundations as well as practical experience leading to competence in actual teaching situations.

a) *Professional education* (B6, B9)—social foundations and organizations of American education as well as the educational system(s) of the language(s) being studied, human growth and development, learning theory and curriculum development, including the role of language and international studies in the curriculum and in the global community.

b) *Second language pedagogy* (B5, B6)—objectives, theoretical approaches to and methods of teaching a second language and/or a specific discipline in a second language; language teaching techniques and procedures; curricula, teaching and testing materials and aids; adaption of instructional materials to specific situations, and purposes; professional information sources, e.g., journals, research reports, and professional organizations; design, implementation and evaluation of innovative materials and techniques.

c) *Second language measurement and evaluation* (B7)—principles of testing in general and second language testing in particular; techniques of proper interpretation and reporting of the performance and progress of second language learners; ability to

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examined assumptions and expectations govern most of what we do in our daily lives. Examples of deep culture include preferred modes of learning, notions of modesty, conceptions of the ideal spouse, patterns of superior/subordinate relations, notions about the value of labor, the conception of the self, the arrangement of physical space, notions about adolescence, the nature of friendship, approaches to problem-solving, nonverbal behaviors of all kinds, and much, much more.

For further information on the teaching of culture, see Dell Hymes, *Language in Culture and Society: A Reader in Linguistics and Anthropology*, New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1964 and Ned H. Seelye, *Teaching Culture: Strategies for Foreign Language Educators*, Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1975.

prepare various valid, practical and relevant classroom tests; ability to objectively critique and select appropriate second language tests; evaluation of teaching materials, procedures, and curricula.

d) *Language teaching practicum* (B5, B6, B7)–systematic directed observation, supervised teaching practice and progressive teaching responsibilities which contribute to experience and competency in the primary roles of teaching in a language and international studies program as described in Section A above. (The experience gained in the training program will generally be more extensive and direct with regard to shaping desired teacher candidate behavior (A1, A2) than in those roles which concerned themselves with curriculum development and assessment (A3, A4). Nevertheless, opportunity should be given for some experience in *all* roles.

–Institutions should provide opportunities for systematic and directed observation of a variety of second language learning and/or global education programs for second language learners of *all* age, grade and proficiency levels which use one or more appropriate and representative teaching methods, tests, materials, and aids.

–Institutions should provide guided teaching practice with graduated responsibility that is in line with the student teacher's employment goals. This experience will help student teachers achieve some practical teaching experience while they work toward demonstrating competence in satisfying the role-objectives specified in Section A above.

3. *Bilingual, Vocational, and Consumer Education.* Courses and training with primary objective of training teachers to help their students develop competencies that will enhance their students' career opportunities and train them to be intelligent consumers both in the United States and abroad.

a) *Bilingual Vocational Education*[4] (A1, B10)—instruction in English for special purposes[5] (ESP) and target language(s) for special purposes[6] (TSLP); bilingual vocational training and retraining; guidance and counseling (either individually or through group instruction) in connection with such training or for the purpose of facilitating the necessary legal and cultural aspects of working successfully both here and abroad; instruction related to the occupation(s) for which second language learners are in (or one day may be in) training or instruction necessary for these learners to benefit from such training where appropriate; the acquisition, maintenance, and repair of instructional supplies, aids, and equipment; job interview techniques; instruction in filling out job applications and other requisite forms, and so forth.

b) *Bilingual Consumer Education* (B10)—instruction in English for special purposes and target language(s) for special purposes; systematic and directed presentation of the language learner's legal rights and responsibilities as well as avenues of legal recourse; global perspective on legal rights of citizens and non-citizens; global view of how the countries being studied have an impact on and function in the world market; comparison shopping techniques; instruction about national and international economic policies and structures; currency conversion,[7] i.e., the means by which the currency of various countries are exchanged, and so forth.

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[4] For a fuller description of bilingual vocational education, see *Federal Register*, "Vocational Education, State Programs and Commissioner's Discretionary Programs," Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: Vol. 42, No. 191, October 3, 1977, Part IV.

[5] English for special purposes is a type of language training that is directed toward the specific vocational need(s) of the ESL learner who is participating in the IS program, e.g., specialized English for non-native doctors, mechanics, scientists, hotel employees, and so forth.

[6] Target language(s) for special purposes is a type of language training that is directed toward the specific vocational need(s) of a speaker of American English who is enrolled in the IS program and who desires to seek employment overseas, e.g., specialized Japanese for the native American who will be establishing a fast food franchise in Tokyo or specialized Italian for the secretarial student who wishes work in the Italian Embassy in Washington, D.C. or in the American Embassy in Rome.

4. *Evaluation of Candidates.*

Evaluation of each candidate's achievement in the area of competence mentioned above is an integral and systematic part of the teacher education program at all stages, i.e., for admission to, retention in, and completion of the program.

a) *English language proficiency* (B2) of both native and non-native speakers of American English should be demonstrated by satisfactory completion of appropriate college-level course work requiring a high level of oral and written expression and/or objective evaluation of these skills by standardized and valid test instruments which can be properly interpreted and reported.

b) *Second and/or third language proficiency* (B2) of both native and non-native speakers of the target language(s) should also be demonstrated by satisfactory completion of appropriate college-level course work requiring a high level of oral and written expression and/or evaluation of these skills by standardized and valid measurement devices which can be properly interpreted and reported.

c) Where applicable, *demonstrated competency in teaching a specific discipline in a second and/or third language* (B8) as measured by such assessment techniques as direct observation, criterion-referenced tests, and so forth.

–Institutions should publish a clearly articulated policy concerning admission to, retention in and successful completion of the teacher education program. Such a policy statement would contain precise information about: 1) application procedures and criteria for admission into the program; 2) how and by what professional criteria students may be dropped from the program; and 3) the minimal academic achievement and the level of teaching competence required for successful completion of the program.

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[7] Teachers should teach their students that exchange rates of nations fluctuate continuously and that daily rates of currency conversion can be found in business journals and newspapers such as the *Journal of Commerce*, the *Wall Street Journal* and the *New York Times*. This information is also obtainable at any international bank. Furthermore, teachers and students should understand the national and global ramifications of such information.

–Institutions should assess each candidate's achievement with assessment tools that are appropriate for and relevant to the objective measurement of each desired competency, including, of course, direct observation and evaluation of teaching performance. The results of the evaluation should be available for advising the candidates in their continuing education and career selection as well as for recommending, licensing and employing the teacher. Accordingly, their readiness and potential ability to be successful teachers are certified in the name of a particular institution. Officials designated to make such certification are able to demonstrate that they have received the necessary assessments concerning the candidate's satisfactory performance in *all* units of the teacher education program.

5. *Staff and Facilities.*

Teacher training institutions should have staffs whose combined competencies are superior to the level of instructional proficiencies which are stated objectives of the program. The teachers and supervisors of courses and training in teaching methodology should also be superior in the competencies described in Section B.

–Institutions in question should maintain a current curriculum library/resource center containing those materials, tests, games, aids, and audio visual equipment typically used to teach language and international studies at all levels. Tapes of radio and television programs in the target language(s) as well as appropriate English and foreign language magazines, newspapers and various other kinds of literary genre should also be stored in the library/resource center. Naturally, bibliographies, journals, magazines, research reports and other sources of supportive professional information, including the names, addresses, services offered, and information about appropriate professional and community associations and educational clearinghouses should also be available and kept current and on file.

–Institutions should maintain close contact, not only with the instructional programs in which the candidates are participating, but also with the communities within the state to which these candidates are being sent as student teachers or hired as full-time teachers.

–Institutions should also train students to work successfully within various types of communities, i.e., rural, suburban and urban, to use community resources properly and to gain and sustain active community support for the program.

–Institutions should also train students to work successfully in various types of language and international studies programs, e.g., the magnet school, the school-within-a-school, the consortium school, the infusion or community participation program, the strand approach and the international resource center.

–Institutions should train students to be competent and well-rounded professionals, e.g., teacher candidates should learn how to satisfactorily perform such professional tasks as: 1) writing an abstract, 2) making an effective oral presentation, 3) writing a properly prepared *curriculum vitae* or resumé, 4) dressing and acting appropriately during a job interview, 5) applying for a grant and/or filling out a request for a proposal, and 6) preparing a prospectus.

LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES SCHOOLS AS DEMONSTRATION CENTERS FOR IN-SERVICE TEACHERS

Language and International Studies High Schools might be utilized as demonstration centers which could serve the needs of teachers within their regions. New techniques, innovative approaches, and even standard practices could be demonstrated to visiting groups of in-service teachers. This approach is not without its problems. Practicing teachers are quite alert to the "differences" which exist between the resources, the students and the settings in which demonstrations occur and their own classrooms. Attempts to be persuasive about the efficiency of new techniques demonstrated in laboratory settings have for years fallen short of their goals because of this problem. How could we expect Language and International Studies Schools to overcome this handicap? We suspect that certain of the models proposed in the section on school organization answer this question as does the fact that these schools arise from communities rather than be superimposed upon them. Clearly the goals expressed in the earlier part of this section need to be held for teachers already in schools that intend to become Language and International Studies Schools. The realization of these goals will be slow in coming given the constraints of tenured faculty and low budgets. Nonetheless, these are examples of community self-improvement programs and such programs could be enhanced by some of the kinds of corporate support listed in that section.

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ISSUES IN CORPORATE AND PUBLIC SUPPORT

Leader: Fred Coombs

Reporter: Russell Mosely

Panelists: Paul Drake
Paul Gaeng
Bernal Green
George Herts
Larry Neal
Vicki Otten
Hans Martin Shoenfield
Jurgen Schweckendiek
Patricia V. Egan Turner

One crucial aspect of the task of bringing Language and International Studies Schools into existence is the development of realistic means of stable financial support. In light of the present situation, conventional funding patterns will not prove adequate for the establishment, development, and maintenance of Language and International Studies High Schools. There will, rather, be a need to develop alternative sources of funding for a new, distinctive category of school or program, for that matter.

Another observation is that the initiative for these schools comes at a time of significant constriction within the educational enterprise in particular and, more generally, within the economy. Declining public school enrollments have resulted in less state aid for many high school districts just as economic recession has put increased pressure upon all sources of income in both public and private educational sectors. While governmental expenditures for public education have continued to rise, even in real dollars, most of the increase has gone to improving the salary schedules of teachers who now bargain collectively. This has had the effect of absorbing much of whatever new money finds its way into the educational domain, often at the expense of new programs, such as Language and International Studies Schools, and of curtailing outlays for essential staff in-service training and vital instructional materials.

Finding alternative sources of support for Language and International Studies Schools in an era of financial constraints will be a challenge, but there are some positive factors to consider. Strong economic incentives exist for fostering a more cosmopolitan citizenry, and corporate interests may well come to look upon the development of Language and International Studies Schools as a worthwhile investment in the national attempt to re-establish a favorable trade balance. In Washington, concern for increasing language competency and inter-cultural awareness appears to be growing as the drive for expanded foreign markets takes shape. The Education Amendments of 1980 in reauthorizing the National Institute of Education, established as a new priority; thus "encouraging the study of languages and cultures and addressing both national and international concerns." The same theme was also sounded in the reauthorization of the Higher Education Act's Title VI, which called for an expanded foreign language and international study program, along with area studies centers and international studies centers for research and training (*Educational Researcher*, November, 1980, p. 21).

Furthermore, the public's receptivity to alternative forms of education is currently rather high. Increasing public skepticism about public schools has led to proposals for tuition tax credits, intended to revitalize private elementary and secondary schools, and voucher plans designed to create greater diversity of educational programs and more choice among alternative programs for pupils and their families. Campaigners for both of these measures have received encouragement from then President-elect Reagan and his 14-member task force on educational policy (*New York Times*, November 10, p. 1).

We shall return to some of these points after a brief sketch of the context within which funding for Language and International Studies Schools must be found.

THE CONTEXT: SCHOOL FINANCE IN THE 1980s

Any review of U.S. public school finance starts with one dominant theme—the strong, long-standing tradition of local control buttressed by the fact that most of the cost was met from local tax revenues. Only in the last two decades have we seen significant trends away from that starting point.

The dominant position of the local real property tax in school finance has been challenged by states which have assumed a substantially larger proportion of expenditures for public elementary and secondary education. This trend—surely one of the more fundamental recent changes in school finance—is attributable in part to the availability of new revenue generated in many states by the adoption of a state income tax. But even more important has been the attempt to smooth out glaring disparities in dollars available for the education of children in rich and poor school districts. Equalization formulas governing the distribution of state school aid, spawned by national attention to U.S. Supreme Court cases such as *Serrano v. Priest* and *Rodriguez v. San Antonio*, have had the effect of increasing the states' share of the cost of public education dramatically.

At the same time, the federal role has also been developing. Passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 signaled the first major influx of federal money into public education. Again, the impetus was equity. Title I of ESEA directed a most significant amount of money to support better schooling for educationally disadvantaged children. Racial desegregation, special education, bilingual programs, handicapped students, school lunches, Title IV—a host of federal programs—all addressed equality of educational opportunity in areas presumably not dealt with adequately at the local or state levels.

In 1978, the federal government provided revenue for 8.1 percent of all public school expenditures at the elementary and secondary level, while the states contributed 44.1 percent and local sources 47.8 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education*, 1979, p. 146). Most federal funds have been in the form of "categorical" aid targeted for specific purposes, accompanied by increasingly complex rules and regulations, and leaving relatively little discretion to implementors at the school level. The concept of "block grants," which would lump funds for similar programs together with relatively little prescription as to how the money was to be spent within the set of programs, has been championed by some Republican leaders in Congress and by many state education officials. It has not, to date, had sufficient support on Capitol Hill to challenge seriously the dominant pattern of categorical aid. However, it may not become the primary basis for distribution of federal aid to elementary and secondary education.

As we move into the 1980s, educational finance is buffeted by several cross-currents. The need for equity-based programs for migrant populations, the handicapped, the poor, and other disadvantaged groups remains as great as ever. But public revolt against rising taxes and government spending has led to tax and expenditure limitations in many states, resulting in a reduction of revenues and budgets. There appears to be good evidence that the tax revolt is stimulated by the rapid rise in taxes and the perception that we are not getting our money's worth, rather than any fundamental rejection of the educational objectives and programs those taxes have been supporting (Education Commission of the States, *Finance Facts*, October 1979). Yet, the revolt coincides with a gradual erosion in public confidence in the quality of public schools, a significant increase in private school enrollments—especially in secular and Christian day schools. The decline in SAT scores is just one of the events that has begun to divert public and governmental attention from equity concerns to questions of quality and educational standards—usually translated as achievement in basic skills, whatever these may be.

Three basic changes in school finance patterns appear probable under a more conservative administration and Congress. First, a change from categorical aid to block grants at the federal level will shift much of the political activity in education to the state level. In anticipation of this change, we should not overlook the states as potential funders of Language and International Studies Schools. Second, some form of tuition tax credit for parents of children in private schools is likely to become law and may survive a constitutional test. Such legislation would be destined to accelerate the growth of private schools and make private Language and International Studies Schools a more feasible alternative to public schools for many parents. Third, there is growing sentiment in some quarters (including some of President Reagan's education advisers) for a national educational voucher plan. While various voucher plans contain fundamental differences, it is probable that a plan patterned after the Coons-Sugarman proposal in California would afford increased flexibility for the development of Language and International Studies Schools as alternatives to existing public schools. Even in the absence of federal initiative on this front, selected states may experiment with voucher plans in the coming years, providing some opportunity for the creation of Language and International Studies Schools in those states.

THREE POSSIBLE MODELS OF FINANCE FOR LANGUAGE AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES SCHOOLS

Federally Funded Schools

The federal government operates special purpose schools in several other areas. One example is Bureau of Indian Affairs schools for native Americans; another is Department of Defense schools operated for overseas dependents of military personnel. The claim of the language and international studies schools movement upon federal monies for a new category of federal school would have to be based upon the compelling nature of the problem and its national character. It seems unlikely that such arguments are likely to prevail, especially in a new budget-conscious administration which will look skeptically upon virtually any new program request. It should also be noted that the federal response to the Sputnik "crisis" in 1958 was not federal schools to train more competent scientists and mathematicians, but the *National Defense Education Act* which poured millions of dollars of federal money into curriculum development and teacher training programs to improve existing public and private schools. Title VI (Section 603) of that act, incidently, provides funds for magnet schools which might be used for public school districts interested in establishing international magnet schools (S. Frederick Starr, 744).

At present, the political reality is that only strong political pressure from business and industry would have any prospect of producing the level of funding necessary to establish and run federally operated Language and International Studies Schools.

Corporation Funded Private Schools

There are strong incentives for large corporations to support Language and International Studies Schools. United States leadership in the world market has faltered in recent years, and a portion of this decline is attributable to the difficulty corporations experience in recruiting sales and managerial personnel with the skills and knowledge required to work effectively abroad. It has been pointed out that there are approximately 10,000 Japanese sales representatives in New York and all of them speak English, whereas of the approximately 1,000 U.S. sales representatives in Japan, few speak Japanese (S. Frederick Starr, 743).

There has been, nonetheless, a striking expansion of U.S. direct investment abroad in the period from 1970 to 1978. For example, in this period it is estimated that U.S. investments abroad increased more than 200 percent. Approximately 44 percent of our direct investment abroad is in manufacturing, while 19 percent is in petroleum, and 14 percent is in the finance and insurance area. Each of these varieties of overseas economic activity creates a demand for employees at every level of the enterprise who are fluent in the language and knowledgeable about the culture.

Significant as the expansion of U.S. investment overseas has been in the eight years from 1970 to 1978, the increase in foreign investment in the U.S. over the same period has been even more dramatic. Direct investment in the U.S. from all foreign countries has more than tripled. Japan now has twelve times the direct investment in the U.S. than it had in 1970. While it is difficult to sort out the various factors that have stimulated that surge, the contribution of educational systems in Europe and Japan which have placed a premium upon the teaching of English should not be overlooked.

Can a case be made, then, for asking large corporations, or their foundations, to establish and fund private Language and International Studies High Schools? Such a school in Poughkeepsie, New York, for example, might both enrich and be enriched by the mix of students from the families of IBM employees. A close working relationship between the corporation and the school could be fostered which would capitalize upon the international connections of the corporation even while preparing high school students to function better in an international setting. Technical lycees in France sometimes enter into such cooperative relationships with industry, although the emphasis is upon vocational, rather than international, education.

Perhaps the major questions to be asked about this privately funded model of the Language and International Studies School are three. First, would youngsters who are not associated with corporations have access to this distinctive type of education? Second, would industries who did rise to the challenge and establish a Language and International Studies School grow impatient, over time, with bearing the burden alone? Finally, would the establishment of such schools create a precedent which might weaken the principle of providing through public education for those needs which are, first and foremost, public needs?

Supplemental Grants to Existing Public and Private High Schools

Under this plan, certain existing schools would opt to become Language and International Studies High Schools and submit proposals to funding agencies for the supplemental aid necessary. It is this approach that appears to underlie the brief discussion of finance in the report of the President's Commission (November, 1970). The emphasis in that document is upon providing additional teachers and curriculum materials, especially during the transitional period from ordinary high schools to Language and International Studies Schools. It was estimated that funding for an initial 20 Language and International Studies High Schools would amount to about $3.2 million each year.

Such plans would not necessarily have to rely upon federal funding. For example, the Gifted Program in the State of Illinois, supported by State Funds, provides a historical example of a program in which certain schools were designated as "demonstration centers" and received special multi-year funding to develop and carry out their special programs. However, this type of funding must be prompted by appropriate local priorities. For example, the Milwaukee (Wisconsin) Public Schools, as part of its magnet school development and capitalizing upon the "school within a school concept," has initiated an international studies program in one of its high schools. While modest funding was obtained from a federal ESAA, Title VI grant for start-up assistance, a local priority determined the dedication of local/state continuing support to such an effort. (Wisconsin has a state "student transfer" law which enables the state to grant a weighted per student aid to support magnet schools if effort is aimed at desegregation.)

There is, similarly, ample precedent for supplementary funds of this type coming from not-for-profit educational foundations or even from university sources. Given the short-term problematics of federal funding and the projected constriction of university finance in coming years, state governments and educational foundations may ultimately become the most promising sources of supplemental grants for international program development in existing schools.

It does remain, however, that patterns for channeling direct support from private corporations into existing public schools to make them Language and International Studies Schools will take some new trail blazing. In fact, some states actually have legal provisions barring direct contributions from the private sector to public schools. Even in those that do not have such provisions, the issue of control of public schools will be raised by such corporate generosity.

One additional problem, perhaps more properly organizational than financial, must be addressed when contemplating transforming existing public schools into Language and International Studies Schools. If these new schools are to be truly voluntary, what will happen to nearby students who want another kind of emphasis, and to distant students who want to attend the Language and International Studies Schools. Might not there be substantial transportation costs, beyond additional instructional costs? Will former functions of the school be performed and, if so, how?

The most congenial setting for the development of Language and International Studies Schools may be the large urban school district already under pressure to develop magnet schools as part of a racial desegregation plan. Designating one school as a Language and International Studies School might be accomplished at relatively little cost beyond what magnet schools emphasizing science, art, or information processing may entail. However, if the Language and International Studies School concept is to have far-reaching and lasting influence upon our nation, rural communities, as defined by Gail Parks, must also have such programs despite funding problems and other obstacles. Here we may need to be most emphatic in stressing *language and international studies in schools rather than language and international studies schools.*

A SUMMARY OF SPECIFIC FUNDING CONCERNS AND ACTIONS

Local

1. Emphatically redefine education to include all local resources. Stress the point that education is broader, more inclusive than schooling in order to appeal to all appropriate supports, human talents as well as funding resources. PR factor must also be carefully considered in this respect. Coordinate efforts with interests and resources seemingly devoted exclusively to other purposes, such as science/math, agriculture, arts, gifted/talented, redirection of basic, etc. Seek support of educational associations, local/state foundations and corporations, World Affairs Councils, etc.

2. Establish appropriate priorities supportive to language and international studies school concept. Again, this must be inclusive thrust with quiet determination of "who's in charge" to avoid "turf protection" conflict.

3. Review possibilities which lie in consortia of like-minded schools (including collegiate institutions). Capitalize upon regional educational service units, such as CESAs in Wisconsin and BOCES in New York, particularly for essential inservice needs.

4. Capitalize on current thrusts at college level, including the area studies centers and their attendant inservice resources. Collaborate with higher education in reviewing appropriate entrance requirements re supportive subjects, i.e., languages, social sciences and humanities. Stress the need for new life in teacher education programs. International studies emphases could prove most attractive to promising academic students.

5. Remain alert to all corporate/foundational support possibilities. Be willing to work within the framework of the matching concept which presently appears to be most appealing to all grantors. Seek active assistance from farm cooperatives, trade associations, etc., who have vital stake in world commerce.

6. Explore all appropriate state and federal funding sources. In light of present predictions concerning the block grant, state departments may have some latitude in flowing funds through to support the language and international studies school concept. However, this must be done in light of heavy demands supporting other priorities. Anticipate emerging trade-offs.

State

1. Department of Education. Under the present circumstances, an enlightened, aggressive thrust in support of international programs and schools on the part of state departments seems to offer the single greatest promise. To achieve this, they must:

   a) Make full use of the federal block grant concept if it materializes.

   b) Encourage greater support of international schools concept by making creative use of ESEA Title IV-C, Bilingual/Bicultural Title VII, Gifted/Talented, etc. A recent example of this on the part of one state was to use federal gifted/talented funding to initiate the international Baccalaureate program in three of its school districts.

   c) Seek state categorical funding to establish or sustain special local schools. Precedent, for example, has been set in at least one state to assist alternative schools with special offerings in American Indian culture and languages.

   d) Alone or in concert with state university(ies) serve as catalyst and/or primary agent in the development of grant proposals to corporate, foundational and/or federal grantors.

   e) In states where instructional broadcast is already well developed, encourage the furtherance of NCIES concept to delivery quality foreign language and culture studies to all schools. This could be done in a relatively economical way if priorities so direct.

2. State/Private Universities

a) Alone or in concert with other universities and state education departments, serve as catalyst and/or primary agent in seeking grants supportive to university and/or local school programs.

b) Review entrance requirements in light of international education's needs with an eye to encourage greater local preparatory efforts as well as to establish more rigorous and productive undergraduate and graduate programs at the collegiate level. Develop needed pre-service teacher education programs. (Funding implications in both instances are, of course, secondary.)

c) Lead in the channeling of necessary support funds and in the encouraging of all appropriate staff resources to address essential inservice programs for local school staffs.

Corporate/Foundational Grant Considerations

1. Capitalize on Seminar working papers to acquire necessary background for proposals.

2. Stress matching concept as an essential ingredient.

3. Work with agencies like the National Endowment for the Humanities to encourage proposals from consortia of schools, especially in concert with state department and/or universities.

4. Consider the involvement of a "middleman" coordinator such as Hewlett to achieve greater rapport with corporate/foundational groups.

5. Seek local and state level corporate/foundational involvement. All states have source materials which identify manufacturing and commercial interests with offices abroad. Do not overlook foreign corporations with active enterprises in this country.

Questions Which Still Remain, in Part or in Full

1. How much money are we talking about? Is the estimate in the report of the President's Commission ($162,000 per school or $3.2 million for 20 schools annually) realistic? If rural consortia are to be included as part of the plan, will this require additional funding?

2. Should we make a distinction between "development costs," such as preparation of materials to be shared by many schools, and "operating costs," such as student transportation and the employment of additional teachers, that will represent additional expenditures in any given school? Are certain potential funding sources (e.g., foundations) more likely to support development costs, while others (e.g., state governments) more likely to provide sustained operating expenses to schools?

3. If federal or state funds are to be sought for Language and International Studies High Schools, what will be the most promising approach? Should new legislation be introduced or can contracts be negotiated under existing programs? Should a language and international studies high school program be administered by the Department of Education, the Department of State, the Department of Commerce, or some other agency?

4. What are the implications of future political shifts in the federal government for the funding of Language and International Studies Schools?

5. What pattern of corporate support of Language and International Studies Schools is most feasible? Which corporations should be approached?

6. What would corporate support mean with respect to governance of these schools (i.e., accreditation, decisions about curricula, faculty recruitment, graduation requirements, etc.)? Would corporate donors want to play a role in shaping the nature of the Language and International Studies High School?

7. What role might not-for-profit educational foundations play in providing support? Should they be seen primarily as change agents to stimulate the development of a Language and

International Studies High School? Or will they be able and willing to provide longer term support?

8. What is most promising: An emphasis upon specially funded Language and International Studies Schools few in number, special regional schools in rural areas, special schools in urban settings or international programs in schools? Are these necessarily mutually exclusive?

BACKGROUND
PAPERS

A DIFFERENT KIND OF REFORM: INTERNATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS

S. Frederick Starr

To many, talk of educational innovation today seems akin to planning a feast in time of famine: a diversion from the real business of survival. The basis of this skepticism is real and well-known. A declining student population, the weakening of the schools' ability to deliver basic skills, taxpayers' revolts, and the public's growing skepticism toward educators and the social cure-alls they have offered in the past. In the face of these grim circumstances, surely the last thing we need is yet another "innovation."

The current situation in the study of foreign languages is, if anything, worse than in education as a whole. The most recent surveys indicate that the fifteen year national decline in foreign language studies has not yet ceased. At no time in this century has so small a percentage of the school and college population been studying a foreign language. And of the small number who do, few get much out of it. Scarcely one in twenty foreign language students ever attains any useful competence, and even that pool of skill tends rapidly to erode in a world of work that has accommodated itself to Americans' linguistic provincialism.

International education is in no better shape, as several recent surveys have indicated. In spite of the existence of a vigorous "global awareness" movement, such awareness is, if anything, still on the wane. Americans, especially younger Americans, are so poorly informed about developments beyond their borders as to be disoriented in the modern world, without an adequate factual or conceptual basis for their own actions involving people other than themselves. Sadly, the effort to reemphasize basic skills has harmed rather than helped foreign languages and international studies. Far from being acknowledged as fundamental for the educated person, their status as frills has been confirmed. Even if a turnabout were to occur tomorrow, the general decline would continue for some time thereafter. Each year a greater percentage of our teachers and professors is drawn from the generation trained in provincialism. Meanwhile, the older generation of better-trained persons each year passes further from the center stage of our public life.

To make matters worse, the many laudable efforts to redress this situation have largely failed. Secretary of State Henry Kissinger's 1976 Interagency Task Force on Foreign Languages and International Studies proved stillborn, due largely to controversies over bureaucratic "territory" involving the Department of State and the Department of Defense. The President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies of 1978-9 managed to draw public attention to the problem but offered no remedy that was capable of being implemented in an election year. One can only speculate what might have happened if the Commission had been established when its founders intended, e.g., in time for the October, 1978, Belgrade meetings to review compliance with the Helsinki Final Act, rather than six months later. In the same vein, some have suggested that the Commission's recommendations might have borne fruit if they had been announced in time for the 1980 budget, but this, too, can be known only with the wisdom of hindsight. Suffice it to say that to date none of the sensible proposals advanced by the Commission appears likely to be implemented at the national level. Moreover, it is still too early to determine whether the privately financed National Commission established to continue the presidential commission's work will be able to produce any concrete results.

Against this background, one must be prepared to defend the apparently preposterous claim, which I shall put forward here, that a fruitful means of strengthening the study of foreign languages and peoples lies readily at hand. Before turning to that claim, however, it would be well to inquire as to the causes of the limited progress that has been achieved through the various efforts to date. After all, if there exist any objective circumstances that have hobbled progress in this area, they are as likely as not to affect future dreams as much as past failures.

It cannot be denied that the unfavorable objective conditions which were cited at the beginning of this paper have played a major role, since they have left the public less inclined to invest in education than at any time in the past generation. Had Americans drawn a connection between the eroding position of their products in the world market and their failure to master foreign languages these factors might have been partially neutralized. But this did not occur.

However great their impact, such "objective" factors alone do not adequately account for the limited success of the campaign in behalf of international studies. At least two tactical errors have also been committed, and have been repeated by diverse groups and individuals advocating the study of foreign languages and international issues. The combined effect of these tactical errors has been to retard significantly the pace of change. Yet unlike "objective" factors, these mistakes of a tactical nature can be readily corrected in the future. Indeed, the promise of International High Schools cannot be realized without their being corrected.

The first tactical shift that is urgently required is to abandon the one-sided concentration on reform at the federal level and to embrace the notion of local and state-based reform. This will not be easy. Partisans of international education have long called for a renewed National Defense Education Act. The campaign for a national policy took many forms and persisted even in the face of the failure of the International Education Act of 1965. No less authoritative a body than the Modern Language Association has called for a "national language policy," which became the explicit goal of much well-intentioned activity, by the present author as well as by others. In this respect the campaign reflected the proclivity of reformers in many areas to neglect the states and cities in favor of comprehensive national legislation. It reflected, too, the strongly centralist bias of academia, which every additional federal dollar spent on education has strengthened.

There are several flaws in this tactic. First, it neglects the fact that only a minute percentage of the *total* bill for foreign languages and international studies is paid for by the federal government. At the NDEA centers the figure might approach eight percent, but not even the universities boasting such centers can claim that federal funds account for more than four or five percent of the school's total expenditure on languages and international studies.

At most institutions, of course, the figure would be far lower. Even if the percentage were higher, it would not alter the fact that much of the best national legislation is developed and tested first at the state and local level. Forgetting this, reformers have tried to leap at once to the federal plane without first developing the local and state backing that is essential to success in our federal system.

The second tactical error committed by friends of international studies has been their concentration on colleges and universities at the neglect of the schools. This bias, akin to building a house from the roof down, dates at least to the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which was based on the assumption that universities really could solve most, if not all, of the nation's problems. Since then, nearly all advocates of foreign language and international studies have been drawn from the university professorate. Preoccupied with other pressing matters, high school teachers, principals, board members, parent-teacher association leaders, chief state school officers, and union leaders have been notable only for their absence in the national debate over international education. The few exceptions, notably Mr. Albert Schanker of the American Federation of Teachers, are among the first to acknowledge the general disinterest in their cause. The effects of this bias in favor of universities has been to retard the development of a strong base of local support for such studies in the schools, and, worse, to absolve educators at the pre-university level of responsibility for their own neglect of the problem.

Among the great advantages of International High Schools is that their successful development would indicate the path for future progress that lies beyond these two tactical blunders. On the one hand, International High Schools are best developed through local resources, with federal funds playing at most a temporary supporting role in the beginning. Indeed, it can be said that any sign of dependence upon federal support for the creation and maintenance of International High Schools is a measure of the failure in local advocacy. Second, International High Schools can be sustained best by high school educators themselves, with university professors providing only technical expertise and counsel. Again, the strength of an International High School will correlate directly with the amount and quality of interest that school teachers and leaders take in them. The creation of International High Schools is already being widely discussed, and on a practical basis. Such schools will not alone dispel the smog of indifference that wrapped the campaign for international education during the 1970s. Their immediate significance lies in the fact that they will constitute laboratories in which methods for teaching foreign languages and other subjects with an international dimension can be devised and tested for later application more broadly. By their success, the first International High Schools will revive the flagging spirits of America's seventy thousand high school language teachers. By their success, they will create a core of administrators, teachers, and parents committed to public support for international education at the local level. No less important, the pioneer International High Schools will provide models for imitation at a time when such models are almost totally lacking.

But what should be the curriculum of an International High School? It goes without saying that such a school will have to meet all state and local requirements in every field. While doing this, it will devote as much time as possible to the first objective: to develop in each student a fluent command of one foreign language, including reading, writing, comprehending and speaking, as well as a basic grounding in a second. As a means to this end, it will probably be considered desirable for the first language to be used as a medium of instruction for substantive course work in the advanced grades. This will not be easy. On the one hand, a new kind of teacher will have to be found or created, one who is intellectually ambidexterous, able to teach history or math in both a foreign language and English, but no less capable of using that substantive instruction as a means simultaneously of building up the students' linguistic competence.

The absolute centrality to language study in the curriculum of the International High School cannot be stressed too much. No successes in "international education" will make up for failure in this area, while success in this area will go far toward compensating for inadequacies in other fields. Nonetheless, it is highly desirable that the *entire* curriculum at an International High School be reassessed so as to develop its international content. Obviously, this will entail the revamping of courses in such areas as social studies, American history, and the like. It may also lead eventually to the development of new teaching materials and text books. Just how far beyond the social sciences the "internationalization" should proceed is very much a subject for debate today. As a rule of thumb, one might adopt the principle that the traditional curriculum should be changed only in cases where it is evident that the new program will offer not only different perspectives but in a clearer, better organized and intellectually more coherent fashion. A good idea badly developed would be no improvement on the present situation.

In developing the international content of traditional areas of study, it will be extremely important for educators to stress practical knowledge and to avoid embracing the ideological political programs of both international interdependence and national autarchy. If International High Schools ever become identified with a particular political or economic program, their early demise can be expected. They must deliver competence, not a state of mind. There will be work enough to elaborate this general program in several key areas. For example, it will be necessary to develop a reliable method for generating high linguistic competence in American high school students in the shortest possible time. This, in fact, is the most pressing curricular challenge posed by International High Schools. Any curricular debates in other areas that are permitted to impede the resolution of this central problem must be considered as a regressive force.

Substance must come first, but if the budget and finances of International High Schools are not worked out with equal care, the new schools will fail. Model budgets should be developed as early as possible, and revised with each change in the program. Such budgets must cover all needs, including staffing, equipment, student selection, etc.

What role, if any, should federal subvention play in the budgets of International High Schools? In its recommendation to the President's Commission regarding International High Schools, the International Communications Agency called for federal start-up funds, to be offered on a sliding scale over a six year phase-out. While such aid is desirable, all local budgetary planning at this point must be based on the assumption of no federal support. Even if such an assumption were not necessary, it would be desirable as a means of assuring the greatest degree of independence to each school.

Having sketched out these general concerns regarding International High Schools, let us return to our initial assertion that such schools today provide the most practicable and fruitful avenue for improving the teaching of foreign languages and international studies in the United States. They do not require federal capitation grants or incentive funds. The education they provide need not cost more per pupil than training at any other first class public high school. They can build on local ethnic concerns without pandering to them, and they are even compatible with the regrouping of forces that inevitably occurs with the shrinking of a school system.

Besides these factors, various national trends mitigate the negative forces cited above and make the campaign to establish International High Schools more practical and less utopian than at any time in the past. First, languages requirements are being reintroduced at many universities. Tulane University was among the first institutions to reestablish a language requirement, and the impact of its decision has already been registered in scores of high schools around the country. As this tendency gains momentum, high school students themselves will join the ranks of those calling for languages study in the schools. Their parents already have. Even now, Peter Eddy of the Center for Applied Linguistics finds that fully ninety-three percent of parents of high school age students believe that foreign languages should be offered within the schools, while an astonishing forty-seven percent of them—almost an absolute majority—felt that foreign languages should be *required* in high schools. By contrast, only forty percent feel that they should be required in grade schools and thirty-eight percent would have them required in colleges and universities.

Moreover, the expansion of the foreign trade of the United States, which grew from six to thirteen percent of the gross national product during the 1970s, is already forcing itself upon the consciousness of state and local political leaders. As this trend continues, politicians will doubtless begin calling for the study of the language of their region's principal trading partner. At that time, International High Schools will be able to compete successfully with other specialized educational institutions for tax dollars.

Such positive developments are to be welcomed, but there is still nothing inevitable about the establishment of International High Schools. Their creation and maintenance will be due not to the working of national trends or impersonal forces but to the commitment, intelligence, political acumen, and simple passion of local leaders and activists. In the end, these people are the only *sine qua non* for the success of International High Schools. Committed local leaders already exist in many cities and states. Until now, though, they have been isolated from one another and forced to deal with the mass of problems facing them in a state of virtual isolation from similar activists elsewhere. In acting on their commitment, such leaders can be buoyed up by the maxim that, in American education, success breeds success. The first new International High School will be far the most difficult to create and maintain. Each subsequent school will be able to learn from its predecessors, and to derive support from the forerunners' success. Those contemplating involving themselves in such work today can be assured that they are in on the ground floor, where the challenges are greatest and the rewards most enduring. Can American education offer any more stimulating a vista than this?

SOME ISSUES IN IMPLEMENTING INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS THROUGH THE STATE AND REGIONAL LEVELS

Roy H. Forbes

The history of education in this country can be described briefly by listing code words that characterize certain eras. For example, in the late 50's and early 60's, we had the "Sputnik" era during which we reacted to the belief that we had fallen behind the Russians in science and technology. Educationally, emphasis was renewed in science and mathematics. Let's hope that something will peacefully give us another shock for I believe we are in worse shape in science and mathematics education today than we were in the late 50's. I hope the conference work group responsible for making recommendations pertaining to the science and mathematics curriculum will consider the national decline in students' performance in problem solving.

The code word of the mid-to-late 60's was "humanism." Although the ideal "humanism" embodied some worthwhile concepts, we did not have the slightest idea about how to universally achieve successful implementation of instructional programs reflecting those concepts.

The code word of the early-to-mid 70's was "equity." While we have made some headway at closing some of the performance gaps between the economically disadvantaged and the advantaged and between whites and blacks, we certainly have not completed the task.

The code word for the late 70's and one that remains active is "back to basics." Retrospectively, it may be that the mistakes made during the "humanism" era will be small when compared with the costs to problem solving and thinking skills extracted by the "back to basics" emphasis.

Data collected and reported by the National Assessment of Educational Progress indicate that most students have the basics well in hand. Although there remains a sizeable group of economically disadvantaged youth who show performance difficulties with the basics, most students—75% or more—have the more basic of the basics under control. It is in the area of the application of the basics—the ability to analyze and solve problems, the ability to develop thoughts and write persuasive essays—that we have our most critical educational problem and this is not being addressed. This is the problem reflected in declining SAT and ACT scores, not a "basic skills" problem. Most students can compute using whole numbers, but don't ask them to use these computational skills in solving a two-step mathematical word problem. Most students have the basic mechanics of writing, but don't ask them to use these grammar, punctuation, and spelling skills in writing a persuasive essay or a business letter. Most students have literal comprehension skills, but don't ask them to infer from what they have read or to analyze or evaluate a reading passage.

I am convinced that it is in application of skills that we have a critical problem not in the acquisition of the basic skills themselves. In the 60's, humanism was mismanaged, but if we are not careful the "back to basics" movement will be a more serious instructional mistake. I hope that this point will be considered as we discuss learning experiences to be provided in International Schools.

The latest of the code words, the new term on the street, is "federalism." This is not a new word; it has a long history in our country. This buzz word or jargon implies less federal involvement. It is the word used in calling for the return of responsibility for many, if not most, domestic programs to state and local governments. The separation between the powers and responsibilities of federal and state governments is something that most of us value.

Throughout our history there have been clarifications of the roles and responsibilities of these two levels of government. The most dramatic of these clarifications involved the country in a war; the economics and social concerns of slavery and federally controlled trade were the topics driving the clarifications.

Another dramatic clarification occurred in the 1930's, when once again economics gave birth to the "new deal." The early 60's saw another clarification driven by concerns for equity and the "great society" and "war on poverty" were implemented. These examples of clarifications all describe cases where the federal government assumed more and more responsibility.

Now it appears that the pendulum may be swinging in the other direction. In education there are calls by some for the federal government to "get out" completely. The more moderate, probably the largest and strongest group, are calling for the end to regulations and the consolidation of most federal programs. For example, some are calling for only two elementary/secondary education programs sponsored by the federal government: Title I of ESEA and everything else in a single block grant to the states.

When individuals who remember why there was a need for regulations and categorical programs, especially in those areas dealing with equity, express fears that there may be an erosion of progress, the response, although sometimes given in many words, so far, can always be translated into "trust us." When questions relating to specific program concerns are raised, for example health education, the response is very likely to be that "schools should not be expected to do everything" or "the three R's should be the major concern of the schools and individual communities should assume responsibility for any additional instructional aspects."

Now, hopefully, my tie-in with the topic of this session is clear. We have several places where we can turn for financial support in starting a national network of International Schools: foundations, industry, business, and local, state, and federal governments. But for continuation and maintenance we need to focus primarily on local, state, or federal government support.

One strategy that could be directed at the federal level could be a push for a categorical program. Although this is an avenue that could and should be explored, because a strong case can be made for International Schools and the national interest, I do not believe that this strategy would be very fruitful given the current "federalism" trend. I concur with previous recommendations that we consider the states as the appropriate source of funding and regulations.

States may, within the next six months, be responsive. State leaders will need to alleviate the fears of those who mistrust the states' ability to be responsive to educational concerns. They will need to build acceptance of the 80's breed of federalism. As the battle about federalism is being waged, states may be responsive to assuming responsibility for the support of International Schools. But after this battle is over, it may be considerably more difficult.

Therefore, early promotional activity energy should be expended at the state level, not at the federal level. Chief state school officers, state legislators, governors, and the aides to all three need to be contacted and converted to the cause. If a movement toward the establishment of International Schools that meets needs currently not being addressed in this country is going to be successful, we need to have the understanding and support of these state educational leaders.

One approach for gaining state level support would be to include International Schools as one of several special schools that should be completely funded with state fees. Other special schools for which strong cases can be made include: advanced science/mathematics, agricultural, fine arts, and the performing arts. Approaching legislators with this broader need may be an easier and more beneficial path to follow. Of course, special schools would have to be "sold" as regional or statewide schools. This model for support does not fit an individual school serving a single community.

In developing a positive climate at the state level, a good working relationship with strong, effective professional organizations may prove to be most beneficial. State level professional organizations, for example the state association of secondary school principals, should be helpful in making contacts with legislators and other elected officials.

As legislators and other state level decision-makers are approached for support, the costs of International Schools in relation to the cost of "regular" education must be clear. Any additional costs should be, when possible, directly linked to a state economic benefit. For example, a state with a region where large investments are controlled by the Japanese could find it economically beneficial to support an international school where Japanese was one of the language/cultural emphases. Legislators will need to understand that the school would not have as its purpose educating Japanese students but would be designed to train American students so that they could communicate with the Japanese on equal, non-disadvantaged terms.

I join with the keynote speaker in recommending that a well constructed budget be an early *must*. We need to demonstrate that we know the financial aspects of what we are proposing.

I don't always guess right. Several years ago I underestimated the growing economic concerns and guessed wrong about what would happen in the citizenship education area. I may be wrong about federalism—but I think not—but even if I am wrong the international school movement will not have been damaged by the planning and activities I have suggested. A better understanding by state education leaders about the need for international schools can only help. And if the state is the place to where we must turn for financial support, then this understanding is essential.

ISSUES IN THE IMPLEMENTATION AT THE STATE LEVELS

Paul T. Griffith

I begin with the assumption that it is the hope of the participants that this conference result in the development of models for International Schools that can be used nationwide. I am also assuming that you hope these models might be implemented in various states with the greatest speed possible. In order to achieve rapid implementation—or in some cases, any implementation at all—I believe it is critical to secure the support of the state education agencies. I will attempt to show why state office cooperation is important, and I will offer my perception of how this collaboration can best be brought about.

It is useful to obtain the endorsement and support of the state education agency in almost any endeavor to effect curricular change. The reasons are universally the same:

1. State education agencies can bring many human and material resources to bear on a cause that the agency administration has decided to favor. State offices interpret and apply the guidelines that govern the flow of large sums of federal grant money through them to the local schools. All state departments of education conduct technical assistance programs, including in-service training, public information, and consultative services, that can be focused on projects of our choice. We often enjoy close working relationships with professional organizations, institutions of higher education, business, and industry, and can help link these resources to particular programs.

2. Local school districts often look to the state education agency for an endorsement of new ideas that come along. State

offices can help legitimize the program and remove some of the apprehensions of local decision-makers. I cannot overemphasize the importance of this aspect of state education agency involvement.

3. Once a state office has endorsed an educational thrust, the agency staff has more leeway to slant grant writings and other planning in favor of the program. This can bring new federal dollars into the state to be shared with local schools. This also gives the staff a rationale for seeking community resources to be concentrated on the undertaking.

4. The state education agency enjoys a unique overview of the total educational activity in a state. We are thoroughly acquainted with the situation in the local schools and in the teacher-training institutions. We know where the resources are needed and where they can be found. We are among the first to receive new ideas coming from outside the state system. Furthermore, it is our *responsibility* to assist schools with educational change, and even to motivate such change. This guiding role has been bestowed on us by law and by tradition. It would not be a mistake not to get these forces on your side in any attempt you might undertake to introduce innovations into the schools.

For these reasons and probably others, it is desirable to cultivate the support of your state office. But it is also essential that we understand something about the posture of the state education agency in the 1980s. Increasingly, states are moving away from *prescribing* curricular programs. One often finds that state education agencies have a distinct policy only to *respond* to the expressed needs of the schools rather than creating programs and urging them on the local districts as in the recent past. The practice of many state departments today is to assist with curricular improvement in indirect ways only, mainly by providing conceptual frameworks (policy statements, concept papers, needs assessment strategies) and by infusing technical assistance (in-service training, public information, consultative services) at the local school level. Since 1975 in the Illinois state office, for example, we have witnessed the elimination of subject-matter supervisors, the phasing out of curriculum guidelines, the discontinuation of the approved textbook publishers list, and the halt of direct services to teachers in the curricular areas. During the same period, our policy has called for a corresponding increase in services that help districts do their own planning and solve their own problems using local or area resources.

Illinois is not the only state nor were we the first to move in this direction. It is a movement that seems to be spreading and accelerating. Moreover, it is no longer the mood of many state legislatures to pass new mandates or earmark money for special causes. In Illinois, in fact, the last two sessions of the General Assembly have produced nearly successful attempts to *remove* two mandates: physical education and bilingual education.

I would not want to leave the impression that the swing to this position is complete in all states, however. I am describing a national tendency; the variations are as numerous as there are states. The point is, you need to inquire. It may be that you will find yourself in futile opposition to established policy if your inclination is to attempt to persuade the state to *require* something of the schools. If your research reveals, to the contrary, that in your state it might still be possible to legislate requirements, mandates, or special funding, it would certainly be worth trying. In the majority of cases, however, my hunch is that you will quickly perceive that your time would be more profitably spent pursuing other alternatives. And in the final analysis, we must always conclude that the most effective way to work with state governments is via their own recognized channels and procedures.

It is also well to remember in this connection that the state education agency is an organ of the state government, created by the legislature, dependent on those lawmakers for funding, and existing for the purpose of serving the government and *all* the citizens. It would be unrealistic therefore to expect the state office to promote an issue on behalf of *any* interest group. In states where the office of the state superintendent is elective, moreover—and there are many—state agency support for International Schools can be expected to vary according to the degree of public opposition to educational innovation, new funding, and internationalism.

All these cautions notwithstanding, I reiterate my original thesis—that is, it is extremely useful to involve the state office whenever possible. Because of its role as an educational policy setter, because it can demystify and legitimitize innovations, because of the latitude it has in deciding where to concentrate its resources, and because of its leadership, prescribed and subscribed, the state education agency can be a formidable partner in any effort to bring about educational change.

If we wish to capture state education agency support for our program, experience suggests that certain characteristics ought to be present in the proposal, certain criteria must be met, certain protocols should be respected. These are not published guidelines, and this makes it all the more important that I call them to your attention.

Many of these points have already been made here. They have been presented by Frederick Starr, Alan Purves, and the authors of the papers presented for this conference. For example, on the subject of state and federal funding, the sliding scale advocated by Starr and Esther Lipshy seems compatible with state education agency practices, so there is no need to dwell on it. I would only add that state agencies must show that in providing funds or any other resource, the same qualifying criteria apply to all schools.

There is likewise no need for me to say any more about cultivating local sources of funding. I concur that it is highly advisable to do so. Given the public mood and the fiscal realities of our time, the most dependable funding agents by far might well be local sources outside the tax base.

State education agencies would also agree that all required subjects must be included in the curriculum of an International School. However, we would expect a thorough reassessment of how those courses should be taught. Certainly, many, many courses would be taught through a second language, and all courses would be structured to contribute as effectively as possible to the goal of enhancing global perspectives and teaching an appreciation for other cultures and lifestyles.

State education agencies would also support the viewpoint that the ethnic makeup and career opportunities of a community need to be considered in developing the curriculum for an International School, in staffing such a school, and in recruiting the students. In fact, all community resources, not only of ethnic elements, but of every other kind should be brought to bear on such a project wherever possible.

There I have retained at least four points that have already been made and with which state education agencies generally should concur. Now let us examine some other caveats, criteria, and recommendations that it might be well to keep in mind during our seminar as well as later when we start working with state bureaucracies in the implementation of International Schools. There seem to be at least a dozen items that deserve our attention. They are:

1. International Schools must not rely on mandates or special funding from government.
2. International Schools must fit with established practices and must make use of existing resources.
3. International schools must be democratic in theory and practice.
4. The International School concept must cultivate a broad base of support.
5. A comprehensive public information effort will be required.
6. The International Schools project should envision a major role for the state education agency.
7. The state education agency may respond to persuasion regarding its role in the development of International Schools.
8. Proponents of the International School project should be able to demonstrate that they have done their planning.
9. The plan must be understandable to all potential publics.
10. It must be clear from the plan that care has been taken to avoid the mistakes of the past.
11. The plan must examine precedents and document chances of probable success.
12. International Schools as implemented from place to place must remain fairly consistent with a national model.

Let me expand on these twelve items:

1. International Schools must not rely on mandates or special funding from government. The key word here is "rely."

We should develop an approach that promises a considerable measure of success whether the Congress or the state legislature come through with funds or not. Then if a mandate or funds do materialize, we can consider it a windfall. Hopes for sucess can just not be built on resources that do not and may never exist.

2. International schools must fit with established practices and must make use of existing resources. I have already spoken of required curriculum in regard to established practices. Other practices include the system of academic units, university entrance requirements, the work/study program, school sports programs, funding sources and procedures, staffing and scheduling, organization and governance. "Existing resources" include the physical plant, foreign language teachers (many of whom are currently underutilized), other faculty and administrators, and naturally the students. The program must be appealing to the student population from which the International School expects to draw its enrollment.

Many sticky questions can arise: What kind of credit do you give for a history course taught in Spanish? foreign language credit? social studies credit? What about transfer students both into and out of the system, considering that most subjects will not be taught in the traditional manner and that fifty to ninety percent of the instruction might be in French or German?

One of the most serious problems in regard to existing resources may be the existing staff members. We would expect in an International School that most of the teaching would be done through a second language. But this would require a degree of fluency and additionally in many cases a mastery of technical vocabulary that exceeds the competencies even of many of our foreign language teachers--indeed, of many average native-speakers. How are we to develop a cadre of teachers who possess both subject-matter competencies *and* the fluency required to teach in a second language, without dislodging people who are already on staff, tenured, and protected by union contracts? Solutions must be found that will not threaten teachers or their unions.

3. International Schools must be democratic in theory and practice. A state education agency is obliged to treat all schools equally, including parochial and private institutions

as well as the public schools. Offers of resources or assistance the agency makes to one school must be offered to all the others on an equal basis. Naturally, many districts may not choose to seize the opportunity; but the state office will be much more comfortable with a proposal that *offers* the option to all schools.

Similarly, equal access must be provided to all *students*. The concept of self-nomination that Starr and others have advocated will satisfy this requisite. Such a practice should attract the bright and the motivated, eliminating the need to impose entrance requirements that might lead some people to comdemn the school as elitist. In all fairness, special efforts will be required to provide unbiased information about the school to groups of students that have traditionally been excluded from foreign language and related studies. One thinks immediately of the vocationally oriented student and of those for whom English is not the home language. The latter in particular would be a tremendous resource to the program as well as being among those who could benefit from it the most.

Just as the option must be open to all the students in all the schools, so should we propose models suitable for any demographic setting in all regions of the country. We need to propose flexible models—models for small towns and rural areas as well as big city models.

Finally, in this connection I want to emphasize that "all the schools" also means that as soon as possible, the benefits of International Schools must be extended to the elementary grades. This implies that foreign language study would be offered in grade schools along with a well articulated program to develop an appreciation of other cultures and foster global perspectives. Such attitude development, as we know, naturally begins at an early age; and it is the opinion of many experts that the elementary school child is ripe for second language acquisition.

In this regard, I must say I have serious doubts about our being able to devise an instructional program that can take high school freshmen with no second language and teach them enough of the language that they can receive instruction in other subjects through that language within a period of just a few months, indeed in their entire four years of high school. The obvious answer to me is that we must move very rapidly toward the day when the expectation is that students will have some language prior to coming to an International High School. Whether they acquire this foreign language at home, in elementary school programs, or as a result of living or traveling abroad, it matters not. The fact remains that entering students must have at the very least minimal second language competencies in order to succeed in a true International High School as I conceive it.

4. The International School concept must cultivate a broad base of support. State agencies are more likely to respond favorably when they are sure that a project is not the pet of some narrow interest group. Moreover, the cause needs the support of many groups in terms of sheer numbers of people. Of course, we are talking about nothing less than the entire curriculum. This touches all the teachers, all the students. If appropriate communications links are maintained with all the subject-matter and administrative groups and if we engage in a vigorous public information campaign, involving community planners and resources in our effort, we would seem to have most of the ingredients for success in this connection.

5. A comprehensive public information effort will be required. Such an effort will help promote public support as well as the broad-based backing I just referred to. In Illinois, the information campaign is statewide. We are engaged in an intensive program including awareness conferences, public service announcements, press releases, an audio-visual presentation, brochures, and a very active state and regional advisory structure. It is well to get such a campaign under way *before* any opposition can develop—opposition that in most cases is a product of the very lack of information.

6. The international schools project should envision a major role for the state education agency. This is certainly not to say you can dictate a role for them. And it is not the same as saying that all state departments will *want* to become involved. It does mean you need to leave room for the state office in case it does want in. If you assess a strong local commitment, by all means proceed with your project . . . without a clear statement of support from the state office if necessary. Do keep the state

informed, however. Their leadership, resources, and priorities change over the years. They might join you eventually, if not at first.

7. The state education agency may respond to persuasion regarding its role in the development of International Schools. The majority of state education agencies are not yet on record as having developed a policy regarding international education. They might be moved to action by your own expressions of interest and support. They might be stimulated by hearing about approaches that have been successful in states that *have* formulated an official response. They may respond in kind if they see that professional organizations, institutions of higher education, business, and industry in their state are backing the effort with time, expertise, and other resources. In many cases, the state agencies will have to define their own role. In other states, they will ask for outside advice, as Illinois did when the State Superintendent appointed the Task Force on Foreign Language and International Studies. In Illinois, this has resulted in strong state agency support for international education, and that has been a major factor in the success of the movement.

8. Proponents of the international school project should be able to demonstrate that they have done their planning. I cannot overstate the value of developing a *written* plan. Whether you are approaching state agencies or private foundations for support, they invariably ask to see a copy of your plan. A plan provides the essential scenario. The plan furnishes the basis for effective evaluation of progress. A plan lets outside people and groups see where they can fit in, what they can contribute—valuable additions that the original planners perhaps never dreamed possible.

9. The plan must be understandable to all potential publics. We have already said at this conference that we will be addressing state and local superintendents, legislators and members of Congress, funding organizations public and private, business and industry, other community groups, teachers of all disciplines, parents, students. There will no doubt be others. We need to do more than steer clear of professional jargon. We need to anticipate the fears and objections of these publics and

do our best to allay them before they can even be articulated. These groups need to "find themselves" in the plan, see how it relates to them, be assured there is a place in it for them.

On the subject of jargon, I find we already have a problem with the expression "International School." I realize we inherited the term from the President's Commission, and it was therefore appropriate to retain it for this conference. But I feel the designation "International School" gives rise to misunderstandings in many circles. I would like to propose "Language and International Studies Schools" as a name that explains more precisely what we have in mind and that also has the distinction of originating with the President's Commission.

10. It must be clear from the plan that care has been taken to avoid the mistakes of the past. I am painfully reminded of the failure of many elementary foreign language programs in the 1950s and 1960s. They were often plagued with poor materials, inappropriate methods, overinflated expectations, uninspired teaching, thoughtless sequencing, and a lack of public relations. The demise of one FLES program seemed to hasten the fall of its neighbors. Administrators at all levels will be less apprehensive about proposals that contain intelligent strategies for overcoming these and other pitfalls.

11. The plan must examine precedents and document chances of probable success. This includes assembling all the supporting research and data we can. We should also document the successes of other special schools: the performing arts schools in New York, Cincinnati, and the District of Columbia; the science schools in Brooklyn, the Bronx, and North Carolina; international schools in New York and D.C.; immersion programs in Milwaukee and Cleveland; the language academies in Chicago; the Boston Latin School; the Soviet *Internat*; the Latin American English Schools; the German *Europaschule*; and the multinational schools of the European Community.

12. International Schools as implemented from place to place must remain fairly consistent with a national model. Otherwise, confusion is bound to result, and this would detract from all of our efforts. This conference will go a long way in furnishing the basic model. Nationwide networking among

> developing schools will provide another means of keeping the programs true to the norm. Eventually some sort of accrediting body may become appropriate. The International Baccalaureate model has shown such self-discipline to be feasible. In fact, I hope that one of the outcomes of this conference will be a national committee or network—functioning perhaps as a subcommittee of the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies—to monitor progress, to serve as a clearinghouse for ideas, and to provide us with a star to steer by.

That completes the examination of the twelve points. I emphasize again that there are many variables. A thorough study of the local modus operandi is an essential first step in working with the government agencies in any state.

Several times now I have alluded to the Illinois Task Force on Foreign Language and International Studies and I have spoken of the initiatives we have taken in this state. I would like to conclude by briefly outlining the program for foreign language and international studies that is under way in Illinois. This is not an international school model. It is a more generalized effort to internationalize curricula in a large number of schools and to improve and expand their foreign language programs. But the success we are having provides many useful lessons for implementing International Schools.

We realized very early on that substantive federal support for foreign language and international studies as recommended by the President's Commission might be a long time in coming. Rather than wait for Congressional action, we decided to get started on our own. The result has been a successful statewide program that has won the backing of teachers, school administrators, professional organizations, and community groups, and that is serving as a model for a number of other states.

The first step was taken in October, 1978, when the Illinois State Superintendent of Education appointed the Task Force on Language and International Studies. You will recall that this was the same month in which Jimmy Carter named the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. The Illinois Task Force was composed of twenty persons representing parents, community interests, school administrators, and teachers of foreign language, social studies, bilingual education, and cross-cultural studies, kindergarten through university. Private and parochial institutions were represented as well as the public sector. The Task Force report, a thirty-page document, was completed by June 1979. By September of that year, the agency staff, in response to the directions of the State Board members, had developed the Task Force recommendations into the Illinois Plan for Foreign Language and International Studies, and implementation had begun.

The plan calls for the completion of approximately fifty activities over the five-year period 1980-1985. Five categories of activities are identified:

I. State and Regional Advisory Councils
II. Curriculum and Resource Development
III. State Office Leadership
IV. Visibility and Advocacy
V. Student-Oriented Activities

Implementation of activities is taking place in all five categories and is on schedule. Copies of the complete plan are available; I will report on several activities in each category:

I. *State and Regional Advisory Councils:* Five regional advisory councils have been named by the State Superintendent, one in each of the five administrative regions of the state. Each council is composed of eight to twelve members drawn from school administration, parent organizations, the student body, and the community (business, industry, agencies, ethnic groups, the media, and world affairs organizations), as well as the ranks of professional educators, kindergarten through university, parochial, private, and public. The regional advisory councils have each developed their own work plans and are implementing three types of activities in accordance with the charges assigned to them by the State Superintendent:

1. advising the State Board members and staff on the implementation of the Illinois Plan
2. identifying human and material resources (consultants, promising programs, instructional materials, funding sources) that can be shared with local schools

3. conducting visibility and advocacy activities to increase public awareness and support for foreign language and international studies

A State Advisory Council, composed of the regional chairs plus five members-at-large, have the following functions:

1. acting as an informational clearinghouse for the regional councils
2. coordinating the activities of the regionals, eliminating duplication of efforts
3. making periodic reports to the State Board of Education

II. *Curriculum and Resource Development:* Among the activities in progress in this category are:

A. *Cooperating Consultant Program:* Sixty outside consultants have been identified and oriented by the state office to provide technical assistance to local schools in a variety of areas. These consultants include school administrators, grant writers, community resource persons, and teachers of foreign language, social studies, bilingual education, and cross-cultural studies, kindergarten through university.

B. *School Resource Sites:* Twenty-two schools widely dispersed around the state have agreed to develop foreign language and international studies programs of various kinds in collaboration with the state office and then to share their materials and expertise with other schools wishing to develop similar programs. The number of these resource sites will be tripled by the end of 1981.

C. *Planning Seminar Series:* The State Board of Education has offered three three-day seminars for local school personnel to assist them in developing individual plans to improve and expand their foreign language and international studies programs. Follow-up consultative services are available to the participating schools as they refine and implement their local plans. This has been our most popular staff and curriculum development activity, and most of our school resource sites have evolved from this planning activity. Four more seminars are projected before the end of the 1980–81 school year.

D. *Workshops for Teachers and Administrators:* Approximately twenty workshops will be conducted by the State Board of Education in cooperation with local schools, institutions of higher education, and professional organizations covering many issues: instructional materials, teaching strategies, resources, public information activities, and *in-service* techniques. Many of these workshops are organized in a trainer-of-trainer format. Administrators and guidance counselors are urged to attend as well as teachers.

III. *State Office Leadership:* Under this category, the State Board of Education has formed the Illinois Task Force and facilitated its work; developed and implemented the Illinois Plan for Foreign Language and International Studies, which includes all the activities previously mentioned; adopted a federal grant to fund implementation of the plan; and adopted an official policy statement that provides that every student in Illinois schools should have the opportunity to pursue a well articulated, uninterrupted program in foreign languages and international studies beginning at an early age and continuing through high school. That the highest educational policy-setting body in the state should adopt such a statement is very significant. Grant proposals are presently being developed that, if funded, will allow the state office to continue this level of leadership or even expand it.

IV. *Visibility and Advocacy:* A series of five awareness conferences is being held in various locations around the state. The cooperating consultants and the State Board staff are providing sessions at teachers institutions, professional organization meetings, teacher-training institutions, and meetings of civic organizations. We have in production a slide-tape presentation, public service announcements for television and radio, and several brochures.

V. *Student-Oriented Activities:* Activities for students are conducted jointly with professional organizations, institutions of higher education, and community groups. They include language and culture immersion weekends, intercultural arts festivals, simulated international and cross-cultural conferences, and a program of recognition for promising students of foreign language and international studies.

There, briefly, are the major activities under way in support of foreign language and international studies. What lessons are contained in this for the implementation of International Schools? The first of these lies in the fact that in Illinois the state office assumed a strong leadership stance from the beginning. I am acquainted with a number of instances in Illinois and in other states where an outside group has approached the state education agency with a seemingly well thought out scheme, but the planners received almost no cooperation from the state largely because the bureaucracy had not been involved at the conceptual and developmental stages. There was just no way the state office could accommodate something that had not evolved through its established procedures. This was not aloofness or egotism on the part of the agency; that is just the way bureaucracies operate. Conclusion: very early contact with the state office is essential.

Secondly, the broad base of support we have cultivated has helped the Illinois project tremendously. You have heard me detail the interdisciplinary nature of the Illinois effort. But more than involving all kinds of teachers, we have made a point of including administrators, guidance personnel, parents, students, and a wide range of community representatives. We believe that this mix has provided considerable vigor, a variety of innovative approaches, and frankly just more sheer numbers of people talking about and doing something about our project than would have been the case if only the foreign language and/or the social studies teachers had tried to go it alone. Finally, a program supported by so many different factions, we feel, is much more securely rooted than one that serves only narrow interests.

A third lesson is that community resources are available if you go after them. The Illinois project has received not only funding, but also staff time, technical assistance, and other in-kind services from almost all the state universities, from federal and state government agencies, from professional organizations, from regional superintendents, from the Centers for Educational Improvement, and from business and industry. It is as simple—and as complex—as approaching the right people at the right time in the right way.

It seems appropriate for me to close my remarks with an announcement about our future directions. This will be news even to Illinois people in the audience, because we have just received administrative approval to proceed. That is, in 1981, our office will begin making major efforts to foster several international schools based on the models generated by this conference. Without letting up on our other programs, we will be moving toward the identification of four or five highly commited districts, and we will provide whatever technical assistance and help seek any additional funding necessary to permit them to develop into International Schools. This will be significant for education in Illinois; but it will also provide a useful and early field-testing of the models we will develop at this conference. This gives us yet one more reason to believe that this conference is important and that our expectations can be very high.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN RURAL AMERICA

Gail Armstrong Parks

I read the discussion paper, "The International High School," with a great deal of interest but with an even greater amount of skepticism about its implementation—as currently conceived—in rural places. There is no question, of course about the need for international studies at the secondary level. It is widely recognized that the world has become a global village and is rapidly becoming more so. Nor is there much doubt that certain types of rural places seem uniquely suited for international studies programs at the secondary level, and uniquely in need of them. Those places that come to mind immediately are rural areas in states with planned or operating extractive or other energy-related operations (e.g., Alaska, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas); border or noncontinental states with significant concentrations of rural students whose first language is not English (e.g., Texas, Arizona, New Mexico, California, Alaska, Hawaii, Louisiana, and Maine); states where direct trade with foreign nations is already a feature of local life (e.g., Alaska); and states containing depressed rural areas where it is currently anticipated that international companies may locate (e.g., Arkansas, Alabama, the Carolinas, and other Southeastern states).

For rural students, opportunities for gaining access to "careers of the future" seem promising when a foreign or multinational corporation's presence brings internationalism directly into the community. And in substantial numbers of cases, more and more direct contact between United States rural people and foreign nations or international entities of varying types appears to be a probable trend. It is in situations where this is or will be the case, it seems to me, that international education makes most sense for the immediate future–given the current economic climate, given what may be anticipated as education policy by the incoming Reagan-Bush administration, and given the current interest in public and private collaboration. I will return to make this argument at a later point in this discussion.

The barriers to creating the type of International School described in the discussion paper are substantial, however. In fact, as I read the paper I had once again the familiar experience that grows no less depressing with frequency and initimacy: the experience of feeling that the urban bias is endemic, reflected here in the asumptions that seem to underlie the discussion of how international schools could be established in rural areas.

Let me preface my next remarks by assuring you that I attribute no ill-will or intended neglect to any person or institution when I talk about an anti-rural bias. An unintended bias appears in many discussions about education because most of us reflect what we have seen with greatest frequency–what seems familiar or "normal." In education for the past fifty years or so, that has tended to mean the metro or suburban school. Few of us in academic or policy positions are rural educators.

Throughout the paper being discussed, assumptions are made that schools and school systems are large, have teachers with the luxury to specialize in their teaching, can draw on numerous and varied resources, have adequate or potentially adequate tax bases, have scheduling flexibility, and are located in cosmopolitan environments that usually attract teachers with rare or highly-specialized subject-matter expertise. In many rural places, none of those assumptions can be made. It is doubtful that there are many rural school systems in the United States where a majority of them can be made.

PROBLEMS

Small and Isolated Rural Schools

Consider, for example, the isolated schools in Southeastern Montana near Miles City in Custer County. In over 4,000 square miles there are barely enough secondary students for one small high school. To qualify for the term "rural" in Custer County, a school must have only one teacher; a two-teacher school doesn't make it (Gjelter, 1980). Or consider Elk River, Idaho, an isolated one-company mountain town whose school is small by necessity: the next one is "38 miles away, down a road where 18-wheel logging trucks rumble all day long." (Gjelten, 1979). In Southeastern Colorado, the Hoehne Elementary and Secondary School District, with 300 or fewer students, is just "out in the country." A crossroads junction containing a few stores and a post office, is all there is of a town. Such rural isolation is common in western states and on islands, as on Daufuskie Island, South Carolina and Grand Bayou, Louisiana. In the first instance, secondary students must board with families on a larger island to attend high-school because Daufuskie has none. In the second instance, students must travel by pirogue (a small boat) to the mainland and then ride a bus for an hour to get to school. And it is important to remember that in the continental United States alone, there are 1,429 K-12 districts with fewer than 300 students; 1,648 high-schools with fewer than 200 students, and 2,882 elementary schools that do not have an average number of at least fifteen pupils per grade.

Rural Poverty

Poverty is a pervasive rural condition in many parts of the Southeast, the Southwest, and in portions of the "border" states of Missouri and Oklahoma. Scattered pockets of rural poverty will be found elsewhere, with significant concentrations in Midwestern and New England states having large Indian populations. Forty percent of the nations' poor are nonmetro, although only about thirty-three percent of the population is so classified. And rural poverty is different from and often harsher than urban poverty. The rural poor are more likely than their metro counterparts to be underemployed working poor people who must deal with rising fuel costs because they drive to work—often a long distance (National Rural Center, 1979). They are less likely to be AFDC recipients because they tend to be two-parent families (National Rural Center, 1979). They are less likely than the metro poor to have access to federally-funded health and social services and materials. I have visited one Alabama County, for example, where an English teacher did not have enough books for every one in the class to use the same text.

It is the talented student in such rural conditions who seems most unlikely to gain access to "International Schools" as they are currently envisioned. I mention this consideration as a fact to be faced by academicians and education planners who are taking seriously the challenge to establish such schools in both urban and rural settings. I would very much object to having international-study opportunities provided only to the Highland Parks, Scardales, and Evanstons of the United States, and I fear that, were no modifications to be made in the plan I have read, that result might indeed occur.

Rural Curricula, Teachers, and Student Performance

In rural schools, it is often challenging and sometimes impossible to provide an adequate range of curricular offerings without the help of intermediate service agencies, resources shared with other schools (like traveling teachers), and education technology. To think of adding an international studies curriculum in these conditions is to think quixotically. Nor would this be a priority in many rural communities (all of which have talented students) when below-grade performance characterizes far more students than does above-grade performance. This situation is a common one for rural school serving poor and minority students.

As Paul Nachtigal, Ivan Muse, K.Z. Chavis and other well-known rural educators have been saying for years, getting good teachers for rural schools is a major problem; and preparing student teachers to work in rural schools is equally a problem because so few teacher-education colleges even make the attempt. Unless special incentives can be provided, it seems far from likely that the kind of person who can teach an international studies curriculum will often choose a small, poor, or isolated rural school. Without special support and appropriate in-service training, it is very likely that many who might venture out for reasons of idealism or adventure will not stay. Any number of rural principals and school boards can talk about problems of finding, hiring, and retaining good teachers for rural schools. The problem is so severe as to merit national attention.

Costs in Rural Places

First of all, I wonder whether the political climate at this time indicates support for international schools anywhere. Apparently they are expensive; they will surely not be viewed as "basic"; and there is a tendency abroad to think of anything out of the ordinary as a "frill." Indirectly, of course, there is political support for international activities, particularly in economic terms, because of U.S. economic ties with other nations. But any effort perceived as simply "more for the public schools" may not evoke much sympathy.

Nothing new is likely to be added to the federal education budget unless something is taken out. The "new thing," moreover, would probably have to cost less than the "old thing" in order to get in. Will states and localities, then, assume the added costs of international schools? I doubt that more than a handful can afford to do so unless they abandon existing commitments. Who will, in fact, pay for international schools in the 1980s?

Very few rural districts are likely to have any slack in their budgets. In several states, rural localities are struggling with state governments to get what they consider a "fair share" of state resources. On the federal side, it appears that rural districts often get shortchanged in both formula and discretionary programs (National Rural Center, 1981 forthcoming). These battles seem unlikely to yield place to a battle over international schools.

An argument currently being advanced by rural education researchers is that per pupil cost is inescapably higher for rural schools and that equity demands the state be willing to accept such a cost (Rosenfeld, 1980). The need to win that point will probably have a higher priority in most rural communities than will almost any other argument related to financial equity. Thus it seems to me that, for the vast majority of rural communities, the prospects are bleak that a pitched battle for international schools will ensue.

School Transportation

Superintendents of rural schools report that transport costs have risen so substantially during the past two years that the basic structure of school budgets has been altered. Current predictions are that fuel costs will continue to rise. Clearly, this situation limits the applicability of traditional ideas of consortia. Districts may be simply unable to transport students over long distances for special programs, no matter how necessary or valuable they may be.

Many students, moreover, are traveling now to the limit of time and physical endurance. In remote parts of the country, students sometimes leave home before daylight and return after dark. Where this is the case, a consortium would be very difficult to arrange.

NEEDS AND OPPORTUNITIES

The problems I have mentioned might roughly be taken, in sum, for an indication of issues facing rural schools in the 1980s. They are smaller than metro schools; they are often isolated or poor (and sometimes both); they have trouble providing adequate curricula (particularly with anything out of the ordinary) and with securing appropriately-trained, high-quality staff. It is often so difficult for them to negotiate federal and state revenue sources, and their own tax bases are often so limited, that they find themselves in or on the edge of financial distress.

Changes in Rural America

Embedded in many of the problems I have enumerated, however, are hints at solutions. Take, for example, instances from small towns I have visited in the Illinois grainbelt. It is not uncommon to find living in close proximity a well-traveled, well-heeled farmer who deals in international money markets on a regular basis, and a family with teenage youngsters who have rarely, if ever, crossed the state line and who may have no idea how to navigate through a city. Nostalgia for the good old days notwithstanding, those teenagers will have to learn something about the world that the well-heeled farmer knows if they are to enter the competition for more than a marginal existence.

What the farmer knows and does, moreover, is indicative of changes in rural America that have occurred in the past two decades, making it a far different reality than its sometimes still-bucolic appearance may suggest. With respect to natural resources and agriculture, it is rapidly becoming—on a universal basis—a part of international life. Indeed, large areas of rural America have already become that. Some aspects of the intimate relationship between the rural United States and the rest of the world may be seen in the way U.S. agricultural productivity affects the world trade situation; in the politics of the U.S. commitment to providing a substantial part of the world's food supply; in the need to find new sources of energy, often through the efforts of corporations with large holdings in foreign oil-producing countries; and in everconstant debates about national and international fishing territories. It is a relationship that has changed the character of rural life unalterably. Notice that I have not said "is changing." It *has changed* rural America.

Lack of Planned Change in Rural Schools

My experience with rural schools and communities makes me doubt, however, that most students being educated in today's schools have any inkling of the meaning of what is happening. One will find throughout rural America, I believe, schools that very much resemble each other in the degree to which they attempt to be as standardized as possible, offering the names of conventional subjects; teaching those subjects in conventional ways (or copying an urban version of an "innovation"); and, in the case of poor districts, often using outdated textbooks to teach important concepts from science and social science.

Because of the bad press they have often gotten from education reformers—along with a great deal of encouragement to model themselves on metro schools—rural schools are, I judge, much inclined to behave as though progress lies in being "just about as good" as metro schools if a year or so behind. And indeed, they often have little perceived room for innovations of their own when obliged, as they are—however small and minimally staffed—to cope with a tangle of regulations accompanying federal and state program monies and with federally-mandated programs that were designed, in all probability, by government employees with unconscious assumptions that schools are found in cities and suburbs only.

Thus there are contrasts between the rural reality today and the condition of rural education. There are needs for rural students to gain an international education. And there are hints about opportunities, as I have indicated—the proximity to rural students of international financial dealings, multinational corporations, fishing and oil-drilling operations carried out in an international context and—lest we forget—the revolution that has occurred in agriculture since the late 1950s. The question is: how might rural needs and rural opportunities be brought together around the concept of international schools?

I would like to speculate about three aspects of the "International School" as it might operate in a rural setting: first, what it might be like as a system; second, what shape an international curriculum might take in diverse rural places, and third, what pedagogical considerations should be paramount, given certain rural realities.

Rural Systems of International Education

As much as I would like to avoid old chestnuts, I have to begin by saying that, for most rural settings, the concept cannot be an international school but rather must be international education. This is so because of rural school and community characteristics I have mentioned earlier. The best innovations that I am seeing in rural America, moreover, are those that, in a very fundamental way, are challenging the concept of schools *per se* as adequate systems for education. To the best of my knowledge, only a few people are beginning to document these changes, so I have no authenticated body of literature to which I may refer an audience. Instead, I am somewhat in the position of the frontier scout reporting back to the stockade on events observed in the course of traveling and looking. The vision lacks Olympian scope, to be sure, but scouts and lookouts appear to provide the only reporting easily available at this time on what is happening on the rural education frontier.

Whatever other features they may have, good rural education innovations, I suggest, are innovations in linkages—links between the school and other institutions (e.g., community colleges, parks, and recreation centers); between young and old (e.g., the Foxfire concept developed by Eliot Wigginton); between public and private sectors (e.g., work-education councils, contract vocational education, and school-based development enterprises like a current experiment in Arkansas); and between the school and the community, with each teaching and being taught by the other (e.g., Foxfire and free universities like the University for Man at Manhattan, Kansas). What we are seeing, I believe—or at least what I and some others are seeing from what may be very privileged crow's nests looking out on rural America's education—is the evolution of some workable models for rural education now and in the future.

One point to be made about international education for rural places, then, is that educators and planners must see it as a flexible system, occurring across a variety of institutions, and with portions being provided by non-traditional, non-certified "teachers." Perhaps a good metaphor for it is the country church supper–although it cannot be potluck. Country people are at least apocryphally good at pooling resources and bartering for services. There seems to be no obvious reason why country education cannot do likewise and build on the good features of rural life.

Another point is that some type of public- and private-sector collaboration appears both necessary and desirable in rural places wishing to provide students with programs in international studies. Both the private sector and schools stand to gain from preparing students who are potentially employable (1) as linguists, (2) as farms or fisheries experts also proficient in a language or two; and (3) as experts in international rural development or finance. And in all probability, the people with international knowledge who are most likely to be found in rural places are people from business and industry. German and Japanese scholars do not often locate in isolated rural counties; but German and Japanese firms sometimes do, bringing with them both employees and employees' spouses who might be able to teach courses in the languages and culture of their country of origin.

In addition, there are indications that corporations in America are becoming attuned to the idea of corporate responsibility in the community. (A few rural education entrepreneurs have already begun to take advantage of this trend.) A great deal has been learned since the "Gillette Syndrome" created havoc in communities and families a few years ago. When a major corporation sets up an enterprise in a community now, it usually has a planner–at least on an available basis–to work with the community on handling the growth that occurs. There appear to be exciting opportunities receiving foreign or multinational industries–to work collaboratively with industry in planning for educational growth or change.

International Curricula in Rural Settings

Rural communities and small towns are rich in inherent social studies content. They are often, in fact, living, changing social laboratories capable of providing the basis for a rich education in ecology, food chains, and environmental preservation. Changes that are and have been affecting rural America are both social and physical, and these changes spin off not only to urban areas throughout the nation but to other countries as well. It is perhaps in the domains of social and natural science that one sees most easily the connections between a rural American community—changed by events in the world at large—and the international community, which is affecting and being affected by those same changes. Most rural schools' programs reflect little or none of this.

During this decade, numerous rural communities will have to make hard decisions about growth or no-growth through (or without) new industries, about recreational development to create tourism, and about energy exploration. They will be coping with change on an international scale, reflecting the intricate web of economic and ecological relationships that tie the United States to China, to Latin America, to Japan, to Africa, and to the Middle East. Rural students need to be educated about these changes, educated about how they affect rural people, and educated about how to cope with them.

Let me offer two examples.

The phenomenon of the salt marsh is almost an entire international curriculum in itself. (I am exaggerating only slightly.) Considered to be ten to twelve times more productive than the richest agricultural land, the salt marsh is the eternal breeding ground and nesting place for a nearly infinite variety of living species. If it is damaged, its own life and the ocean life over a vast area are directly affected. The entire food chain is, in fact, disrupted—including the links to human beings whose immediate livelihood depends upon the marsh's precarious balance. Consider what happens, then, when an island or shoreline is subjected to over-development requiring too many sewage disposal and waste treatment facilities, or when an oil spill occurs in such a place. The consequences are devastating in the immediate area and are felt painfully elsewhere in the form of scarcity and of subsequent high prices for fish, shellfish, and their products (e.g., fishmeal, which is now used in the diet of many people throughout the world).

What would the consequences be if large sections of the shoreline from Maine to Venezuela were to be changed in character because of over-development that damages salt marshes? Clearly, national boundaries become meaningless when salt-water fishing dies as a major enterprise. What does this mean for the agenda of nations? Does a nation stop exploring for oil, which at this time remains necessary as an energy source? Does it prohibit development, which brings growth and development to underdeveloped parts of the world—including regions in our own country? How are rational tradeoffs to be made, and what does one need to know in order to be able to make them? What are the international implications of actions taken by rural food-producing communities? And finally, what variations in cultural perspective will affect the way a country or a community sees the problem and acts on it?

Many rural students living along the coastal areas of the United States are, in a sense, enmeshed in—though only vaguely aware of—international consideration of this nature. They appear to be prime candidates for international studies focusing on food chains, ecosystems, third world development, and international economics. The curriculum is lying, unmined and unshaped, in their own backyards.

My second example is about a very different kind of rural setting. On the western slope of Colorado, plans are well underway to create a community of 20,000 people on a mesa whose population now is about 300. This new community will be born because of oil shale. Its developer will be Exxon, working in collaboration with state and local governments. Within a very short time, schools that now teach sheep ranchers' children will be also teaching the children of engineers, technicians, and managers, some of whom will undoubtedly arrive with sophisticated international backgrounds, and certainly with some background in urban living. In addition, some of the construction workers necessary for energy extraction enterprises will bring their children and enroll them in school. What will happen when a brand new mini-urban community, complete with upper-middle, middle, and working classes, interacts with a traditional rural community of sheep ranchers? What will it do to the values, perspectives, and world views of families who have always lived isolated ranching lives to be suddenly in the midst of a sophisticated community with international connections? As my friend Terry Denny of the University of Illinois would say, think about that!

In the context of international education, two aspects of this situation merit attention. First, there is the opportunity people will have to study on a small scale—almost in a restricted laboratory situation—a parallel of the phenomenon occurring throughout much of the underdeveloped world: rapid growth from an agrarian or herding society to a highly-developed modern community.

There is no *good* reason why students could not undertake a study of the transformation as it occurs—on a daily basis—with their field notebooks, interview schedules, and community survey instruments. Think about what could be done with a social science curriculum! Even more to the point, think about what could be done with such a curriculum as part of an education in international rural development.

A second aspect concerns the providers of language and international studies in rural places. Suppose—just for the fun of it—that Exxon decided to collaborate with the school system and the nearest community college on establishing and conducting such a program in Parachute, Colorado. And suppose, further, that the school district considered offering one or two languages—perhaps Spanish and Arabic. Exxon might have—or might have access to—an employee who knows Arabic well. It certainly might have the capacity to entice Arabic scholars to spend summers at the community college. With respect to Spanish, and other parts of the curriculum, the rural teacher recruitment problem might be helped in two ways:

1. again, by Exxon employees or their spouses and
2. by the *appeal* such a venture would have—a pilot project in private/public-sector collaboration with support and attention from the state education agency.

Exxon, of course, could expect to receive a very favorable public response, to generate esprit in the community, and to gain some potentially highly-qualified employees.

I have cited these examples because they are so illustrative of certain types of rural conditions as to be almost stereotypical; because I believe they are realistic rural settings for international education, and because they provide me with an opportunity to make a point about pedagogy.

Pedagogical Considerations

I mentioned earlier that the better rural education innovations I have seen emphasize linkages with other sectors. They have another feature also. Each gives high-school students opportunities to experience very directly and very concretely the *consequences of actions*—their own or others. The best ones go farther and help students formulate abstractions about the relatedness of events and actions. Students, moreover, experience adult responsibilities in gradual doses.

The best example, of course, is Foxfire, Eliot Wigginton's innovation in Rabun County Georgia, (Wigginton, 1975; Parks, 1981 forthcoming). When you see students in a poor, exploited Appalachian county producing articles for best-selling books, recording country music albums, videotaping productions for local cable T.V., and battling the hard economic issues of their locality, you realize not only that students can handle demanding adult work, but also that something specific seems required to get them to that point: direct experience with and appreciation of their local community's strengths and problems.

This, I think, is an essential key. It appears that students who have *that* understanding can better make the leap to understanding international situations. So this pedagogical consideration seems to me essential for planning international education programs for rural places—and perhaps for everywhere else.

SUMMARY

In making this presentation, I have tried to indicate why rural schools should—indeed must—be included in a national plan for International High Schools. Let me summarize the four reasons. First, equity demands their inclusion. Second, rural settings are uniquely appropriate because of the international activities that characterize many of them. Third, rural America is on the cutting edge of social change and offers opportunities to examine conditions like those in many other rapidly changing parts of this planet. And fourth, if rural students are excluded from this activity (should it occur), some rural lobbies may be expected to create a clamor about the exclusion.

I have also tried to indicate how rural realities must be accommodated. My capsule version of previous remarks is that International Schools in rural places will probably require:

1. a non-traditional combination of actors and providers of education;

2. new forms of collaboration, some of which have begun to emerge;
3. arrangements for allowing all students—not just those with good language skills—access to some parts of the curriculum; and
4. an "outreach" strategy designed to show rural communities how much sense it makes to give their students an international education.

My final comments are about strategy. In my judgment, a good way to begin in rural places is to choose a few prototypical rural communities where public and private sector partnerships seem promising. At least one western "boom town," one minority community in an agricultural or coastal region, and one Midwestern or New England village should be included. The implementation plan should recognize the need for a start-up period, which may in some cases mean that programs will begin before there is an operating foreign language program.

The most important point about strategy, however, is that we must acknowledge a new political reality, one that is far greater than a change in the presidency of the country. In plain words, at the time in its history when the United States stands most in need of linguistic expertise and international knowledge, it is less able than it has been for about thirty years to finance them in conventional ways. As educators who have grown up and practiced our profession in a world where public funds supported practice and research, we will have to learn how to operate in a world where that kind of largesse no longer abounds. That reality may not be all bad, for it may evoke inventiveness from us as we try to respond to a genuine educational—and national—need. We may indeed be in the era of a new social contract among governments, unions, and the private sector. If so, our particular task will be to find ways of using the social contract creatively, so that genuine educational needs are met. I join the rest of you in believing that international education is such a need. I believe, too, that the need can be accommodated, if we as educators make the adjustments that will be necessary.

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NATIONAL
SEMINAR
ON THE IMPLEMENTATION
OF INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS

J. Terry Iversen

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES IN SUPPORTING INTERNATIONAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I regret very much that my good friend, Robert B. Crawford, Director, School of Social Sciences, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, has been called to jury duty and is unable to give the scheduled address this morning. I do, however, welcome the opportunity to discuss with you a number of ideas which relate to the kinds of support which universities can provide secondary schools in the areas of foreign language and international studies.

I would like to preface my remarks by saying that I agree wholeheartedly with Gail Parks who said yesterday that perhaps it is not realistic for us to think in terms of international schools as the only educational instrument for achieving a high degree of foreign language competency and international studies training at the secondary school level. We should perhaps focus our attention on strengthening international studies education in existing secondary school curricula while working toward the objective of improving international education around the country. As Adlai Stevenson, Jr. once remarked, we have to begin from where we are, not from where we would like to be.

Frederick Starr mentioned during his keynote address on Sunday evening that one of the problems that many educators have is looking to Washington, D.C. and the federal government for the funding needed to implement some grand design. If the federal funds are forthcoming, then the project gets underway. If the federal funds are not forthcoming, and this certainly has been the case with much of the federal legislation for international education, the project remains in a dormant state.

I believe that there are many opportunities to do more in the area of international education at the secondary school level, and colleges and universities are in a position to play a very important role.

One of the first steps that should be taken is the reimplementation of the foreign language requirement for general college admission. During the 1960's and 1970's most of the colleges and universities in the United States reduced or eliminated entirely the requirement that incoming freshmen have at least two years of foreign language training.

Moreover, colleges and universities should strengthen their entrance requirements so that incoming freshmen must have four years of courses in the social sciences and humanities, in addition to four years of English.

I believe that in each case the foreign language and social studies/humanities admission requirements should be a part of the universities' general admissions policy, and not limited to those who are planning to major in a liberal arts program.

By reinstating college admissions policies which require a foreign language and a social studies background for high school seniors, universities and colleges will provide a very effective stimulus for a regeneration of foreign language and international studies education at the secondary school level.

There are other areas in which colleges and universities can assist secondary schools in developing international studies programs. Most of these can be accomplished without a significant increase in funding.

First, virtually all major colleges and universities have many faculty with considerable experience in research and travel abroad. In addition, each year a number of visiting foreign scholars study or lecture on campuses across the country. The resident faculty with international expertise and the foreign scholars who are in the United States for nine months to a year represent an important resource from which high schools can draw to develop special international programs of particular interest to their students and faculty.

Another resource which colleges and universities can often make available to high schools involves the special linkages that they have with community world affairs councils, business firms, and governmental agencies at all levels. Marjorie Farmer indicated yesterday that she receives a good deal of support from the Philadelphia World Affairs Council. There are community world affairs councils in cities across the United States. Colleges and universities have close working relationships with many of these world affairs organizations. Working as a coalition, it is often possible for institutions of higher education and world affairs organizations to develop special international programs for secondary schools. When developing these programs the secondary school students and faculty should play a substantive role in the program planning process.

In most cases the kinds of resources mentioned above can be provided at little or no cost to the secondary school. It is simply a matter of someone from the secondary school approaching a college or university to seek assistance.

For those international programs that might require outside funds it is often possible to involve business firms and community organizations which are in a position to provide some financial assistance. It has been our experience in Illinois that programs which are developed locally and are funded by a combination of state and local funds tend to be more enduring than federally-supported programs in international education, which often have a short life span.

At this point I would like to make some comments with respect to international programs that might be developed for secondary school students. Careful attention must be given to the content of the programs that are developed. If the students perceive the programs to be second rate, student participation will be very low. The programs should be designed to supplement the students' learning experience in the classroom and must go beyond course text materials. Far too little is done, in my opinion, in exposing secondary school students to internationally prominent statesmen who visit our cities and communities each year. The World Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank, and other agencies of the United Nations send highly-qualified officials from New York and Washington, D.C. to meet with community groups across the country. In many instances it would be possible to invite these officials to address a school assembly while they are visiting a particular community. Here again the appropriate college or university may be in a position to assist the local high school district in identifying prominent international officials who will be visiting the community during a given year.

In addition to world affairs assemblies in the schools, we have found in Illinois that an increasing number of high schools are participating in two or three day world affairs conferences that are open to the general public. In several instances the local sponsors will provide scholarships to cover the costs of registration fees and meals for a select number of secondary school students. The world affairs conferences which are held annually throughout the state, feature prominent statesmen and scholars from the United States and other countries. They provide young people with an opportunity to meet individuals from different cultures and to exchange ideas with others participating in the conferences about issues which are being discussed.

The average attendance at each world affairs conference that we have co-sponsored in Illinois since 1968 is 400. In addition to college educators, many business and community leaders participate. I sincerely believe that as they become more aware of the importance of international affairs in our daily lives, support than in the past for international studies curricula in our schools.

The world affairs conference model which we have developed in Illinois has been successful for several reasons. First, by using planning committees which involve community and business leaders, as well as educators, we create a sense of involvement on the part of these volunteers, as well as the determination to make the project succeed. Second, by paying particular attention to the quality of the program and by carefully evaluating each at its conclusion, the word has spread that these are programs that are not only beneficial to the community as a whole but indeed to professional leaders throughout the State. In the end there are readily discernible payoffs for educators, for the communities where the programs are held, and for the universities which have participated in the program design and content.

In closing, I would strongly urge that the efforts toward the development of international schools be focused on curriculum and program content, in the first instance, and on the development of a national network of schools, in the second. It is my firm contention that the program or course content must precede the organizational structure. Neither will develop overnight, but careful nurturing and creative efforts will provide secondary school students with new learning experiences in international education even without a comprehensive federally-funded program.

CLOSING REMARKS

Francis Roberts

Before going to Washington, I spent 28 years as school and college teacher, high school principal, school superintendent, and college president. Along that path I learned quite a bit about how school improvements come about. I also had some experience with international education. Since moving to Washington, I've added an interesting new perspective. In responding to the question, "What are the next steps to be taken toward establishing international schools? as suggested in the President's Commission on Foreign Languages, I make the following observations:

1. Somebody outside the schools always wants to do something to help or to change the schools, but on the whole the schools are not involved as much as the outsiders. For example, of the 110 preregistrants for this meeting, I counted about 19 who appear from titles to be working in schools. In the program I head at the Endowment, most of our applications for elementary and secondary grants come from universities and other cultural organizations. Few come from schools themselves. Our next step is to engage the attention and interest of people at the school level. Children go to school in a state house, not a school system, a university, a museum or a state department of education. Concentrating school change on the outside is like pumping gasoline into the tailpipe in hopes that the engine will run better backwards.

2. Demonstration International Schools, as proposed in the President's Commission (up to 60 of them) could be interesting and effective in the same ways as is the famous Bronx High School of Science, for example, and I'd not oppose such inventions. We certainly need some variety; I've visited high schools

in every part of the country and am dismayed by the organizational similarity. Despite our much discussed system of local control, there is more conformity than inventiveness.

But more than a few separate examples of models, we need local inventions, within the schools now operating. Valuable in this sense would be an inventory of good practices—ranging all the way from special schools to language-tables at lunch time. Many of the most promising practices will emerge within existing schools. It's not too complicated to schedule French III students for a double period, with the second part devoted to European history, taught in French by the French teacher. I'm partial to new directions that teachers want to try and that can get underway without 5 year plans.

3. If we are to encourage fresh approaches to language and culture in high schools we must be quite firm with the universities that they not clamor for a narrow and more rigid secondary curriculum. There is evidence we are about to witness a new wave of prescriptiveness. Let us hope that the colleges' need to recruit from a shrinking high school population will encourage flexibility not prescription. If students had more varied kinds of high school backgrounds, college life would be more interesting for all.

4. Language programs won't expand unless the test-makers and test-users encourage measures which reward oral communication. State tests and college-related exams are a real road-block, and become more so as people become fascinated with what they call accountability. Piet Hein, the Danish scientist and poet who creates "grooks" has one he calls "Mankind," but could be titled "Educational Accountability." It goes

Men, said the Devil
are good to their brothers:
they don't want to mend
their own ways, but each other's.

5. A final point: One possible source of funds for some new ventures is NEH. The Endowment has a strong interest in strengthening foreign language and culture studies. I'd like to see some joint applications in which a school and college propose

to work together to develop exemplary programs. I don't mean curriculum packages to be made elsewhere and delivered to schoolhouse doors; I mean cooperative programs, based in schools and in which the faculty of the school has an equal share with the college faculty. The need is clear, but such applications are rare birds.

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BENEDICTION

Benediction delivered at the close of the Seminar by Dorothy B. Goodman, Director, Washington International School, Washington, DC

December 1980

Alan Purves has asked me to deliver the Benediction, which is, after all, a pre-Benediction, because your distinguished Chancellor of the University will be delivering the real one. I would first like to thank our generous hosts here at the University of Illinois. Several of us who live and work in hectic metropolitan centers were remarking to each other this morning how delightful it has been to be for some days midst the groves of academe surrounded by exhiliarating ideas, pleasant people and good food. Our thanks to all of you.

As Professor Starr reminded us in his keynote address, there must be a polygamous relationship between language and all the academic disciplines, not a monogamous one only between language and literature. So, as we plan the international high schools, we must plan to teach not only the languages themselves, but also other subjects as well as through those languages. Who will be the first senior high in the country to teach physics through Spanish, and mathematics through Japanese? Needless to add, the history in our international high schools must be world history, not history of the United States.

I believe this Conference has illustrated the importance of doing some deliberate, concrete planning about the development of foreign language and international studies in this country. Two of us sat down last night and drew a kindergartner's map of the United States. We placed on that map the initial 20 international high schools, and assigned each one a common language and a "critical" one. One might nominate, for instance, Lowell in San Francisco to do Chinese and Spanish, Beverly Hills in Los Angeles to do Japanese and French, and move eastward to schools in Denver, Houston, Chicago, Milwaukee, Boston, Atlanta, and so on.

What we probably need is a national commission composed of the following elements: an independent school representative; a parochial school person; at least two people from public schools; six representatives from universities, including Professors Twaroz from Ohio State, Means from Temple and/or Jorden from Cornell; a Federal official; a corporation executive and, finally, a representative of the foundation world. This commission could consider in a deliberate and scholarly way our kindergartner's map and make the necessary adjustments and refinements. Of course, if the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies is to do this promptly, there is no need for another commission. Mrs. Marylee Wiley is co-chairman of the Council's task force on K-12. She has had to leave the Seminar early, but should be consulted as soon as possible.

Looking back on the Conference itself, we have had proportionately too many College of Education people here, and not enough academicians from the different disciplines. There needs to be a continuing dialogue across 120th Street (you know the old story about the division between Columbia Teachers' College and the rest of the University). We need to look, as part of our language and international studies exercise, at the Committee of Ten of 1892 and plan what, of each discipline, is to go into the child's intellectual kit-bag for the twenty-first century. There needs also to be a public/private school dialogue, more pointed than we have had in these sessions. It is clearly in the "private" realm of parochial and independent schools that the nation's greatest language strengths reside. Using the Advanced Placement examination figures as an index of language learning, one finds that a very high proportion of current language teaching is taking place outside the public sector. This fact needs to be recognized, and used. (See ACTFL's *Action for the Eighties*, Skokie, Illinois, 1980, esp. p. 175.)

In conclusion, I would like to tell you a little story. I once sat at dinner next to the Prime Minister of Singapore, Le Kwan Yew. It was an unexpected juxtaposition and I thought to myself, "Here is an opportunity to ask my big question." The Prime Minister is known to a hard-driving, enlightened despot, fully fluent in both Chinese and English, an internationalist by education and background, and at present a determined nationalist building his tiny city-state. So I sallied forth: "Mr. Prime Minister, if you had my job of developing a 'world school' in Washington, D.C., how would you go about it, and let's talk about language first. Let's assume that we are training young people who may live and work anywhere on this planet, or perhaps on other planets." When I got to "other planets," the Prime Minister smiled and said, "Let's keep it to this one! Well, the children must have English, for English will be the world language for the next half century. Next, they must learn, if you really mean the freedom of the planet, some Russian and some Chinese, for theirs are the great continental, monolingual areas of the world where people will not bother to learn other languages . . ."

So, that is my challenge to you, my colleagues. We must teach the next generation of young North Americans some Chinese and some Russian. Thank you very much.

DBG